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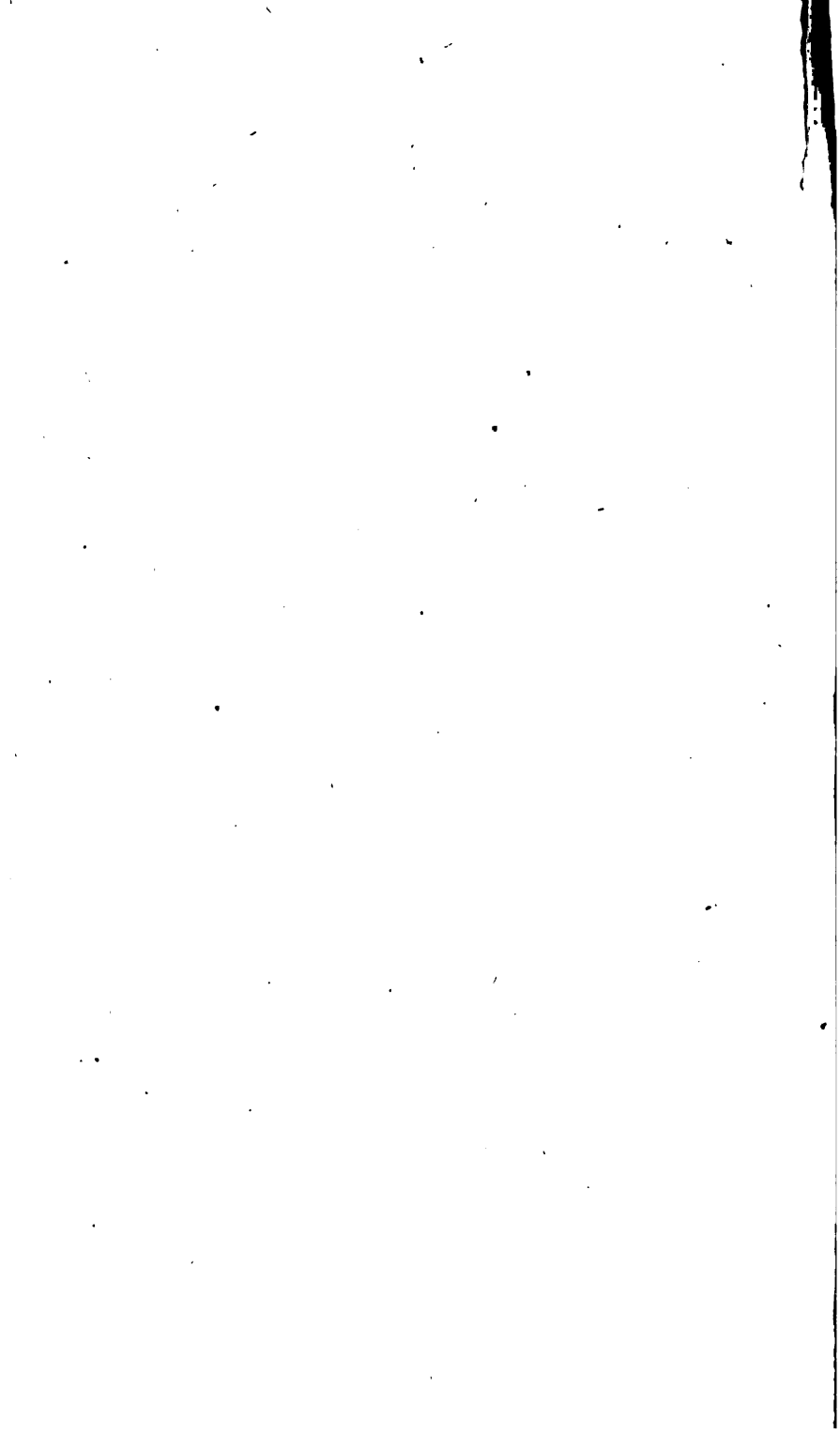
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T H E

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A B S T R A C T

O F

ENGLISH AND FOREIGN

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WOMAN
OF
THE
FUTURE

P R E F A C E.

THE wide diffusion of Science and Literature among all the classes of society, gives birth to an endless multiplicity of performances, which engage the curiosity, and illustrate the efforts of men in their advances to refinement and perfection.

To exhibit a faithful report of every new Publication, is an undertaking of very extensive utility. It affords the means of instruction to the studious, and it amuses the idle. It blends knowledge and relaxation; and ought to hold out and ascertain the progressive improvements, as well as the reigning follies of mankind. It is therefore, a matter of surprize, that two publications only of the critical kind should have been able to establish themselves in England. That another should start for the public approbation cannot justly be a subject of wonder, in the present enlarged condition of our literature. To censure established performances might, indeed, lead to a suspicion of envy, and would certainly be ungenerous; but to contend with them in merit ought to be understood as expressive of a commendable courage, and of a disposition to excel.

The work which we announce, while it has in view the general purposes of science and literature, in common with the two literary Journals that still maintain their importance, is not to be entirely confined to them. It is, therefore, proper to detail with precision, the objects which we mean to pursue, and to cultivate.

I. It is proposed, that **THE ENGLISH REVIEW** shall contain an account of every book and pamphlet which shall appear in England, Scotland, Ireland, and America.

II. It is proposed to give occasional accounts of literature in France, Italy, Germany, and Spain.

III. As there is a necessary connexion between eminent men and their writings, this work will frequently comprehend original memoirs of celebrated authors. And in this department an extreme care will be exerted to attain the truth.

IV. The arts, from which polished nations derive so much advantage and splendour will employ, at the same time, the attention of the authors. The performances of great masters will draw in a particular manner their curiosity, when they serve to enlighten our history, to adorn illustrious events, and to signalize honourable and gallant achievements.

V. As there is a reciprocal action of government on literature, and of literature on government, it is likewise intended to delineate monthly the picture of the political state of Europe; and, at the termination of every year to furnish a succinct but comprehensive survey of the more important revolutions which shall have taken place during the course of it.

Such are the objects which have attracted the attention of the authors, who have engaged in THE ENGLISH REVIEW; and, in the prosecution of them, they are sincerely disposed to consult the best purposes of learning and patriotism. Unconscious of any improper bias upon their minds, they feel themselves animated to exercise that candour and impartiality, which are so often professed, and so seldom practised. Free and independent of any influence, they will endeavour to deliver their opinions with the respect which they owe to the public, and with that exact fidelity, and those scrupulous attentions to justice which ought invariably to distinguish their labours. They have no partialities and prejudices to gratify; are not impelled by any motives of faction; and the happiest recompense for which they wish is the praise of their fellow citizens.

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THE

ENGLISH REVIEW,

For JANUARY, 1783.

ART. I. *A Grammar of the Bengal Language.* By Nathaniel Brasley Halhed. Printed at Hoogly, in Bengal, in the year 1778. Small 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Sold by Elmsley, London.

OUR settlements in the East form deservedly one of the greatest objects of national concern. Populous and rich, our chief attention should be fixed on making them happy and secure; to establish an empire over the minds as well as over the country of the natives; and to leave them not a wish for a change of governors, or of government.

Our present subject does not lead us to the consideration of what the British Legislature or the East India Company have already done, or may hereafter do, towards the prevention, or the redress, of grievances in Hindostan. But one observation, without presumption, we may venture to hazard: without an easy and general intercourse with the natives, through the medium of language, no system of regulation, which the wisdom of man may frame, can promise any solid, rational, or permanent establishment of authority and power. No description of people will ever cheerfully submit to rulers they do not understand: and distrust and inconvenience must ever attend the dangerous and unsatisfactory intermediation of interpreters.

The languages of India, however, have hitherto been totally disregarded by the Parliament and the Ministers of Britain; and they have been nearly as much neglected by the East India Direction. It is to the literary zeal, therefore, of a few private men that we are indebted for the progress, which, within these few years, has been made in this branch of learning. Mr. Jones led the way; and, by his *Persian Grammar*, his *Poeseos Asiaticas Commentarii*, and other publications of erudition and elegance, raised a spirit

REV. Vol. I. Jan. 1783. A 3 of

of study and enquiry into the languages of Asia. Mr. Richardson followed with several works of ingenuity and research, particularly that singular monument of industry and perseverance, the *Dictionary of the Persian, Arabick, and English languages*. Vocabularies and grammars have been published of the mixed and much corrupted jargon of Hindostan, commonly called the *Meers*. And now the ingenious Mr. Halhed (to whom the public has already been much indebted for his translation of that interesting picture of Hindoo jurisprudence and manners, the *Gentoo Code of Laws*) has favoured us with a *Grammar of the native and peculiar dialect of Bengal*.

This dialect, Mr. Halhed informs us, is derived from the Shanscrit, the great original language of Hindostan: it bears to it a relation nearly analogous to the relation which the Italian, the Spanish, and other modern European tongues, bear to the Latin; and, in Bengal is almost the sole language in use among the Hindoos of every tribe and occupation. To give any adequate idea of the genius and construction of this dialect, would go much beyond the bounds and the plan of a Review. It would at the same time be extremely unsatisfactory without the assistance of the Bengal types, which are not to be procured in Europe; and it would after all be very unimportant to general readers. For such instruction, therefore, the curious must apply to the work itself; whilst we shall confine our observations to strictures on the history and the usefulness of a language of very high antiquity, spoken by millions of industrious British subjects, and of great importance, in various lights, towards the proper management of the commercial, military, and revenue departments in Bengal.

'The grand source' says Mr. Halhed, 'of Indian literature, the Parent of almost every dialect from the Persian Gulph to the China Seas, is the Shanscrit; a language of the most venerable and unfathomable antiquity; which, although at present shut up in the libraries of Bramins, and appropriated solely to the records of their Religion, appears to have been current over most of the Oriental World; and traces of its original extent may still be discovered in almost every district of Asia. I have been astonished to find the similitude of Shanscrit words with those of Persian and Arabic, and even of Latin and Greek: and these not in technical and metaphorical terms, which the mutation of refined arts and improved manners might have occasionally introduced; but in the main ground-work of language, in monosyllables, in the names of numbers, and the appellations of such things as would be first discriminated on the immediate dawn of civilization. The resemblance which may be observed in the characters upon the medals and figures of various districts of Asia, the light which they reciprocally reflect upon each other, and the general analogy which they all bear

to the same grand Prototype, afford another ample field for curiosity. The coins of Assam, Napaul, Cashmeere and many other kingdoms are all stamped with Shanscrit letters, and mostly contain allusions to the old Shanscrit Mythology: the same conformity I have observed on the impressions of seals from Bootan and Tibet. A collateral inference may likewise be deduced from the peculiar arrangement of the Shanscrit alphabet, so very different from that of any other quarter of the world. This extraordinary mode of combination still exists in the greatest part of the East, from the Indus to Pegu, in dialects now apparently unconnected, and in characters compleatly dissimilar; but is a forcible argument that they are all derived from the same source. Another channel of speculation presents itself in the names of persons and places, of titles and dignities, which are open to general notice, and in which, to the farthest limits of Asia, may be found manifest traces of the Shanscrit. The meagre remnants of Coptic antiquities afford no scope for comparison between that idiom and this primitive tongue: but there still exists sufficient grounds for conjecture that Egypt has but a disputable claim to its long-boasted originality in language, in policy, and in religion. In support of this opinion I shall mention only one circumstance. The Raja of Kishenagur, who is by much the most learned and able antiquary which Bengal has produced within this century, has very lately affirmed, that he has in his own possession Shanscrit books which give an account of a communication formerly subsisting between India and Egypt; wherein the Egyptians are constantly described as disciples, not as instructors; and as seeking that liberal education and those sciences in Hindostan, which none of their own countrymen had sufficient knowledge to impart. The few passages which are extant in the antient Greek authors respecting the Bracmans at the same time that they receive a fresh light from this relation, very strongly corroborate its authenticity.

Exclusive of the Shanscrit, there are three different dialects applied (though not with equal currency) in the kingdom of Bengal: viz. the Persian, the Hindostanic and the proper Bengalese: each of which has its own peculiar department in the business of the country, and consequently neither of them can be universally adopted to the exclusion of the others.

The Persian entered Bengal with the Mogul conquerors, and being the language of the court naturally gained a footing in the law and in the revenues; it has also for some centuries been the common medium of negotiation between the several states of Hindostan, and from thence became an almost indispensable qualification for those who were to manage the extensive affairs of the East-India Company: so that the accurate and elegant grammar composed by Mr. Jones doth equal honour to the cause of learning, and service to his countrymen in Asia. This language is still used by all the Mogul officers of government, in their several departments of accounts and correspondence; as being the dialect of the former ruling power, of which the English have in some degree taken the place, and whose system they have not yet laid aside. From hence arises one capital impediment to the uniformity of political arrangements in Bengal; for while the summary of all public

business is kept in one idiom, the detail is invariably confined to another, as I shall presently demonstrate.

'The Hindostanic, or Indian language, appears to have been generally spoken for many ages through all proper Hindostan. It is indubitably derived from the Shanscrit, with which it has exactly the same connexion, as the modern dialects of France and Italy with pure Latin. For while the same sounds are almost constantly applied in both languages to represent the same ideas, the inflexions by which they are affected and the modes of grammatical regimen are widely different. The Shanscrit has a dual number both to verbs and nouns, the Hindostanic to neither. Verbs in Shanscrit have the same form for both the masculine and feminine genders; Hindostanic verbs are distinguished by different terminations for the different sexes, like those of the Arabic. These are their capital outlines of dissimilarity; but in the original appropriation of particular words to particular senses, in the idiomatic turns of expression and complexion of speech we may observe the strongest family likeness.

'The Characters also peculiar to the Hindostanic are exactly the same with those of the Shanscrit, but of a ruder shape: yet still exhibiting a more accurate resemblance than is found in many of the Greek letters upon inscriptions of different *Æras*.

'This primitive Hindostanic tongue has by no means preserved its purity, or its universality to the present age; for the modern Inhabitants of India vary almost as much in language as in Religion. It is well known in what an obstinate and inviolable obscurity the Jentoo conceal as well the Mysteries of their Faith, as the Books in which they are contained: and under what severe prohibitions their most approved Legislators have confined the study of the Shanscrit to their own principal tribes only. An explanation of it to persons not qualified for this science by their rank, subjected both the teacher and the pupil to very tremendous penalties; but to sully its purity by imparting the slightest knowledge of it to strangers was ever cautiously avoided as the most inexpiable crime. The Pundit who imparted a small portion of his language to me, has by no means escaped the censure of his countrymen: and while he readily displayed the principles of his grammar, he has invariably refused to develop a single article of his religion. Thus we may suppose that when the Mahometan Invaders first settled in India, and from the necessity of having some medium of communication with their new subjects, applied themselves to the study of the Hindostanic dialect, the impenetrable reserve of the Jentoo would quickly render its abstruse Shanscrit terms unintelligible; and the Foreigners, unpractised in the idiom, would frequently recur to their own native expressions. New adventurers continually arriving kept up a constant influx of exotic words, and the heterogeneous mass gradually increased its stock, as conquest or policy extended the boundaries of its circulation. But these alterations affected words only. The grammatical principles of the original Hindostanic, and the ancient forms of conjugation and inflexion remained the same; and whilst the primitive substantives were excluded or exchanged, the verbs maintained both their inflexions

inflexions and their regimen. They still subsist in their pristine state; and at present those persons are thought to speak this compound idiom with the most elegance, who mix with pure Indian verbs the greatest number of Persian and Arabic nouns. Such of the Hindoos as have been connected with the Mussulman courts, or admitted to any offices under that government have generally complimented their masters by a compliance with these literary innovations. But the Bramins and all other well-educated Jemtoos, whose ambition has not overpowered their principles, still adhere with a certain conscientious tenacity to their primæval tongue, and have many ancient books written in its purest style; among which were probably the celebrated Fables of Pilpay (now not to be found.) They continue to apply it to the purposes of commerce in Surree, Guzarat and other places on the western coast; and their correspondence circulates through all Hindostan, quite to the interior parts of Bengal; where several bankers of this religion, who have at different times emigrated from the higher countries, carry on a very extensive traffic. The Characters in which it is written, though all derived from the Shanscrit, deviate as much from their original exemplar, as our running-hand and Italian differ from round-hand. It is said that there are seven different sorts of Indian hands all comprized under the general term *Naagoree*, which may be interpreted *Writing*; and the elegant Shanscrit is styled *Daeb Naagoree* or the *Writing of the Immortals*; which may not improbably be a refinement from the more simple and unpolished Naagoree of the earlier ages. The word Taagoree is sometimes used to signify a loose or inaccurate character of the Naagoree, but I never could discover that any precise distinction was implied by it. The Bengal letters, such as displayed in the following sheets, are another branch of the same stock; less beautiful than the refined Shanscrit, but resembling it no less than the Naagoree. They are used in *Affairs* as well as in Bengal, and may be probably one of the most ancient modes of writing in the world. The Bengalese Bramins have all their Shanscrit books copied in this national alphabet, and transpose into it all the *Daeb Naagoree* manuscripts for their own perusal.

The dialect called by us the *Moor*s is that mixed species of Hindostanic, which I have above described to owe its existence to the Mahometan Conquests. In this idiom several elegant poems and tales have been composed by learned Persian and Mogul authors, and are still extant in the libraries of the curious. These are always written in the Persian hand, which is by no means calculated for expressing the sound either of the Hindostanic vowels or nasal consonants. The Mahometans of the lower rank have a few books on Religious subjects in this language, and in the Naagoree characters; which are also used by some of them in their petty accounts. Europeans on their arrival in India, reduced to a necessary intercourse with Mahometan servants, or Sepoys, habitually acquire from them this idiom in that imperfect and confined state which is the consequence of the menial condition of their instructors: yet this curious system of study hath produced more than one attempt to a Grammar and Vocabulary. The jargon however, such as it is, proves utterly unintelligible to the villagers and peasants both

both in Hindostan and Bengal, nor is used any where, but in large towns frequented by Mahometans and strangers. On this dialect an ingenious Missionary long since published a laborious treatise in Latin. He is the earliest and may be deemed the only writer on the subject; for the latter compositions do not deserve a name.

What the pure Hindostanic is to upper India, the language which I have here endeavoured to explain is to Bengal, intimately related to the Shanscrit both in expressions, construction and character. It is the sole channel of personal and epistolary communication among the Hindoos of every occupation and tribe. All their business is transacted, and all their accounts are kept in it; and as their system of education is in general very confined, there are few among them who can write or read any other idiom: the uneducated, or eight parts in ten of the whole nation, are necessarily confined to the usage of their mother tongue.

The Board of Commerce at Calcutta, and the several Chiefs of the subordinate Factories cannot properly conduct the India Company's mercantile correspondence and negotiations, without the intermediate agency of Bengal Interpreters: for the whole system of the Investment, in every stage of its preparation and provision, is managed in the language of the country; in which all the accounts of the Aurungs, (or manufacturing towns) those of the Company's Export Warehouse, all proposals and letters from agents, merchants, contractors, weavers, winders, bleachers, &c. are constantly presented; and into which all orders to Gomastahs, Aumeens and other officers for the purchase and procuration of goods must be translated.

Important as this language must consequently appear to the Commercial line, its adoption would be no less beneficial to the Revenue department. For although the Contracts, Leases and other obligations, executed between Government and its immediate dependants and tenants, continue to be drawn out in the Persian dialect, yet the under Leases and engagements, which these in their turn grant to the peasants and cultivators of the ground, and all those copyhold tenures called *Pottahs* are constantly written in Bengalese. And it may even be doubted whether more than one third of all Jentoo Zemindars, Farmers and other Lessees of the state can read a single word of their own accounts and representations, as delivered in their Moonsee's Persian translation.

The internal policy of the kingdoms demands an equal share of attention; and the many impositions to which the poorer class of people are exposed, in a country still fluctuating between the relics of former despotic dominion, and the liberal spirit of its present legislature, have long cried out for a remedy. This has lately been proposed in the appointment of gentlemen of mature experience in the manners and customs of the natives to the several divisions and districts of Bengal, to act as judicary arbitrators between the head farmer and his under tenants: with whom the indigent villager might find immediate and effectual redress from the exactions of an imperious Landlord or grasping Collector, freed from the necessary delays of an ordinary court of justice, and the expence and inconvenience of a regular suit. Such a measure, by holding out to each

industrious individual a near prospect of property in his earnings and security, in his possessions, promises, in the most effectual manner, to ensure stability to our conquests and popularity to our administration; and will probably set open the British territories as an asylum for the discouraged husbandman, the neglected artist, and oppressed labourer from every quarter of Hindostan. But this important commission will be more immediately, and more extensively beneficial, in proportion as it is conferred on those only whom a competent knowledge of the Bengalese has previously qualified for a personal investigation of every unwarrantable exaction, and scrutiny into every complicated account.

‘Add to this, that there is not one office under the *Nazim* or Mogul administration, nor one provincial or subordinate court of justice in the kingdom where an interpreter for this language is not judged as necessary and as constantly employed as for the Persian: and if any public notices are to be dispersed through the country, or affixed in the great towns, they are always attended with a Bengal translation. In short, if vigour, impartiality and dispatch be required to the operations of government, to the distribution of justice, to the collections of the revenues, and to the transactions of commerce, they are only to be secured by a proper attention to that dialect used by the body of the people; especially as it is much better calculated both for public and private affairs by its plainness, its precision and regularity of construction, than the flowery sentences and modulated periods of the Persian.

‘Another singular advantage which it possesses, is its aptitude for the business of the counting-house. For the Bengal doctrine of numbers, both in the forms of the figures and in their application, nearly approaches to the system adopted in Europe; from which nothing can more essentially differ than the Persian mode of cyphering, both in arrangement and application: so that those who would be acquainted with the latter, have a new arithmetic as well as a new language to acquire; and if they have any concerns transacted through this medium, they must undergo the subsequent trouble of reducing their Persian accounts to the European form; whereas those of the Bengal accountant require nothing more than an accurate copyist.’

Mr. Halhed afterwards remarks,

‘That a grammar of the pure Bengal dialect cannot be expected to convey a thorough idea of the modern jargon of the kingdom. The many political revolutions it has sustained, have greatly impaired the simplicity of its language; and a long communication with men of different religions, countries, and manners, has rendered foreign words in some degree familiar to a Bengal ear. The Mahometans have for the most part introduced such terms as relate to the functions of their own Religion, or the exercise of their own laws and government; the Portuguese have supplied them with appellations of some European arts and inventions: and in the environs of each foreign colony the idiom of the native Bengalese is tinged with that of the strangers who have settled there.

‘Upon the same principle, since the influence of the British nation has superseded that of its former conquerors, many terms of British derivation

derivation have been naturalised into the Bengal vocabulary. For as the laws, the revenues and the commerce are gradually falling into new hands and are conducted by a new system, new denominations will necessarily arise to the exclusion of the old. The force of this observation may particularly be proved from those places in which the greatest part of the India Company's investment is provided; where a great number of the terms relating to trade are directly borrowed from the English. So in all the country Courts of Justice the words *Decece*, *Appeal*, *Warrant*, *Summons*, and many others are constantly applied and understood by the whole body of the people.

The following work presents the Bengal language merely as derived from its parent the Shanscrit. In the course of my design I have avoided, with some care, the admission of such words as are not natives of the country, and for that reason have selected all my instances from the most authentic and antient compositions. But I would advise every person who is desirous to distinguish himself as an accurate translator to pay some attention both to the Persian and Hindostanic dialects; since in the occurrences of modern business, as managed by the present illiterate generation, he will find all his letters, representations and accounts interspersed with a variety of borrowed phrases or unauthorised expressions.

The work now before us (the first perhaps ever printed in Hindostan) has many circumstances of novelty, as well as of utility to recommend it to public attention. One gentleman presents us with the elements of a language hitherto disregarded, and almost unknown in Europe. Another gentleman employs the extraordinary efforts of a singular and persevering genius in the fabrication of types of a very novel and difficult construction: whilst we find a Governor General, (unlike every description of public men in Britain) amidst all the busy scenes of war and state affairs, cultivating the arts of peace; advising, soliciting, animating men of ability to undertake, to persevere, and to accomplish pursuits so laudable in themselves, and so strongly pointed to assist and extend the India Company's most essential interests in Bengal.

'The public curiosity' says our Author, 'must be strongly excited by the beautiful characters which are displayed in the following work: and although my attempt may be deemed incomplete or unworthy of notice, the book itself will always bear an intrinsic value, from its containing as extraordinary an instance of mechanic abilities as has perhaps ever appeared. That the Bengal letter is very difficult to be imitated in steel will readily be allowed by every person who shall examine the intricacies of the strokes, the unequal length and size of the characters, and the variety of their positions and combinations: It was no easy task to procure a writer accurate enough to prepare an alphabet of a similar and proportionate body throughout, and with that symmetrical exactness which is necessary to the regularity and beauty of a font.'

' The advice and even solicitation of the Governor General prevailed upon Mr. Wilkins, a gentleman who has been some years in the India Company's civil service in Bengal, to undertake a set of Bengal types. He did, and his success has exceeded every expectation. In a country so remote from all connexion with European artists, he has been obliged to charge himself with all the various occupations of the Metallurgist, the Engraver, the Founder, and the Printer. To the merit of invention he was compelled to add the application of personal labour. With a rapidity unknown in Europe, he surmounted all the obstacles which necessarily clog the first rudiments of a difficult art, as well as the disadvantages of solitary experiment; and has thus singly on the first effort exhibited his work in a state of perfection, which in every part of the world has appeared to require the united improvements of different projectors, and the gradual polish of successive ages.

' The gentlemen at the head of Indian affairs do not want to be told of the various impositions and forgeries with which Bengal at present abounds, in Pottahs, (or Leases) in Bonds and other written securities of property; in Rowanahs and Dustucks, in Orders and Notices of government issued in the country languages; as well as in all the transactions of commerce: and also in the Processa, Warrants and Decrees of the supreme and inferior Courts of Judicature; all of which afford ample scope for the exertion of Mr. Wilkins's ingenuity.

' His success in this branch has enabled Great Britain to introduce all the more solid advantages of European literature among a people whom she has already rescued from Asiatic slavery: to promote the circulation of wealth, by giving new vigour and dispatch to business, and to forward the progress of civil society by facilitating the means of intercourse.

' Even the credit of the nation is interested in marking the progress of her conquests by a liberal communication of Arts and Sciences, rather than by the effusion of blood: and policy requires that her new subjects should as well feel the benefits, as the necessity, of submission.'

Upon the whole, Mr. Halhed appears to have studied his subject with attention. He has arranged his rules with perspicuity. He has made many judicious remarks in his occasional comparison of the formation of the Shanscrit and Bengal dialects with the Arabick and the Persian, as well as with the Greek and Latin tongues; and he has illustrated the whole (after the manner of Mr. Jones in his Persian Grammar, and of Mr. Richardson in his Arabick Grammar) with authorities from the purest of the Bengal writers. There have been times when the labours of a Jones, a Richardson, and a Halhed, would, as well on account of their political utility, as of their literary merit, have engaged the notice of men in power. But this is not the age. The genius of a Hastings does not shine in the councils of St. James's or Leadenhall-street. The consciousness of
having

having laboured to promote the interests of Britain in Bengal may of course prove Mr. Halted's sole reward.

ART. II. *Cecilia*, or Memoirs of an Heiress. By the Author of *Evelina*. 12mo. 5 Vols. 15s. bound. T. Payne & Son. 1782.

WE are happy, amidst the mass of at best unmeaning productions of this kind, which are every day obtruded on the public, when we meet sometimes with a work that repays us for our many hours of langour and disgust. This, it is true, happens but seldom; for good novels amongst the bad, "*apparent rari nantes in gurgite vasto*;" but, like all uncommon blessings, it hence acquires a higher relish, and more powerfully corrects that acidity, which we are often told, is contracted by a constant application to the critical profession.

At an early period, indeed, the Authoress of *Cecilia* appeared in the literary world, with a respectability far above what could have been expected from her years: and in the present performance she vigorously supports the reputation she had acquired. By telling a plain and simple story, without one episode, without "out-stepping the modesty of nature," she has contrived to interest the Reader through five volumes. No event takes place but what might have happened to any one; no character appears (Miss Beverly and Albany excepted) that every day's experience does not discover a similar. And yet, with so much skill are these common materials compounded, that the attention is arrested, the mind as it were fascinated, and the feeling heart melted by the artful though natural tale. The perplexities and embarrassments which, for a time, retard, and at last bring on the catastrophe, spring in a manner so unforced, from the temper and dispositions of the persons, or from the situations in which they are placed, as to produce that full effect, that plenitude of satisfaction which invariably attends a faithful representation of nature. When we consider the age and sex of the writer, her knowledge of the world is truly astonishing: for to her own observation she appears to be solely indebted for the characters of the novel. All of them seem fairly purchased at the great work-shop of life, and not the second-hand, vamped-up shreds and patches of the Monmouth-street of modern romance. She has brought forward a great variety, painted with a forcible expression, admirably contrasted, and discriminated with delicacy and precision, while there is a keeping in the whole which shews the master's hand.

That

That characteristic unchangeableness which all the persons support from their first appearance to the conclusion of the story, affords a pleasure which is seldom to be met with in works of this kind. No miraculous variety of disposition takes place, which nature forbids, and every day's experience contradicts :—" *servatur ad imum*" seems to be the device of the fair writer, to which she has most scrupulously adhered. Old Delville preserves to the last all the unbending stateliness of the Spaniard, and all the family pride of a Cambrian or Caledonian. Monckton is throughout designing, artful, and persevering. Harrel affords an admirable representation of those who sacrifice their honour, probity, and conscience to unbounded dissipation ; and finish by suicide, what is very improperly termed a life of pleasure. In Mrs. Harrel, a numerous class of females may behold their own likenesses. With a mind weak and unfurnished, incapable of friendship, or any good impression, with an eternal craving for amusement from without, because she feels nothing but vacuity and solitude within, she mixes in every folly of fashionable life because she is a burthen to herself : and after all her misfortunes, we leave her ready to begin again her course of futility. Belfield, with talents capable of every thing, and possessed of the most estimable qualities, is rendered unhappy, and in some measure ridiculous by his pride, and the unsteadiness of his temper. And, though at last, we are given to hope that a change will take place, yet, so fully has he established his character with us, that should we again meet him, we are satisfied he would be invariably the same.

The subordinate persons are by no means unnecessary, or unmeaning figures; to fill up the back ground of the piece : they contrive to interest us either by themselves, or as they help to bring on the catastrophe : and in all of them an uniform consistency of character is preserved.

After what we have already said, it would be impertinent to inform the Public that the Hero and Heroine of the piece have not been neglected by the Author : every attention has been successfully paid to them that their merits demand.

One omission we think the amiable Writer has been guilty of, by neglecting to give a minute delineation of the features and figure of her actors. If we are not mistaken, to have an idea of the features, air, and figure, as well as to be acquainted with the sentiments of those whose story we peruse is a desire in which we are by no means singular. This desire, we imagine, demands with more propriety to be gratified by the novelist than the historian. In history, it is the great chain of events, rather than the actors which occupies

occupies and interests the mind : and instruction more than amusement is the object of pursuit. The imaginary scenes produced by the novel writer operate in a different manner : situations every where occur in which we ourselves may be placed, and persons are exhibited, whose prototypes we may often meet with in life. Every thing comes more home to the heart, because at every step we feel a possibility, often a probability, of being concerned in similar transactions. Nothing is henceforth indifferent to us, and we feel unsatisfied if the *persons* as well as the characters in the story be not minutely portrayed.

The most celebrated Authors in this line, from the immortal Cervantes downwards, seem to have been fully persuaded of this general desire, and to satisfy it have employed uncommon pains. The renowned Knight of La Mancha, with his facetious Squire, Gil Blas, Uncle Toby, Sophia Western, Tom Jones, Joseph Andrews, Parson Adams, with his contrast Trulliber, Commodore Trunnion, Lieutenant Bowling, and honest Pipes, are figures perfectly familiar to us, and by their being thus our intimate acquaintances, we become infinitely more interested in all their concerns.

We shall conclude what we have to say on this excellent Novel with just hinting, that had the Eggleston family been represented as more worthy of their good fortune, or had a flaw in the Dean's will enabled Miss Beverley to enter again into possession of her estate, perhaps the conclusion would have left a more pleasing impression on the mind. Cecilia, however, as she is, will be found a most agreeable and instructive companion, and as such we with pleasure recommend her to the public,

ART. III. *A Treatise on the Study of Antiquities, as the Commentary to Historical Learning*, Sketching out a general Line of Research : Also Marking and Explaining some of the Desiderata. With an Appendix. No. I. On the Elements of Speech. No. II. On the Origin of written Language, Picture, Hieroglyphic, and Elementary Writing. No. III. On the Ships of the Antients, No. IV. On the Chariots of the Antients. By T. Pownall, 8vo. 5s. Boards. Doddsley.

THIS treatise is sufficiently important to attract curiosity and attention. The Author commences his work with an eulogium upon the Society of Antiquaries ; and it is, doubtless, to be considered as an useful institution, He then controverts the visionary toils of the injudicious enquirer into antiquity ; and while he demonstrates the
infig-

insignificancy of systems erected without experience, he exposes the folly of collecting fragments and relics without any purpose or design. He conceives that the Antiquary has 'two concurrent lines of study, that of history, properly so called, both of nature and man; and that experimental history of the extending and advancing powers of man, as they are elicited by the varying and encreasing wants of his being*.' He thinks, 'that there is, as it were, a *golden chain* descending from Heaven, by which all things are linked together in a general system; and that man has powers to trace back the *links of this chain* up to the primary principles of this system; and that the study of antiquities should be pursued in this spirit of philosophy, and the knowledge acquired thereby applied as the commentary of history†.'

Proceeding upon this plan, Mr. Pownall enters upon an analysis of the powers of enunciation and the elements of speech, and upon an application of them to ancient history. He endeavours to show, that a philosophic etymologist, by tracing back the deviations in different dialects of the same language, and the variations of different languages, may illustrate effectually the history of man, by ascertaining tribes, illustrating obscure events, and by unfolding customs and policy. From abstract reasonings he proceeds to examples; and after attending in this view to the language of ancient Greece, he considers the language of ancient Europe in general.

From the efforts and inventions of men as they advance in civility and refinement, the Author sketches out with great ingenuity the lights which an intelligent and penetrating antiquary might throw upon human affairs. And from the broken fragments of antiquity there, no doubt might, in time be collected the form and proportions of a complete figure. Truth might even be illustrated from fables. One discovery might lead to another. A series of philosophic investigations concerning the progress of nations, from the Sylvan state to the æra of polished life, while it would contribute to dispel the darkness which obscures the earlier history of every nation, would advance the knowledge of every art and every science. This, he describes as the great business of the cultivated antiquary; whose researches are chiefly commendable while he acts as the interpreter of historic learning.

Without the aid of Antiquarian labour, without regard 'to the communities and growing states of the ancient world, we may,' according to our author, 'read and learn a great deal, but shall know very little; we shall continue reading about a creature that we do not

* Introd. p. iv.

† Ibid.

understand the nature or constitution of ; we shall neither conceive the springs, the means, nor the ends of its actions ; we shall neither see the purport of the wars, nor the reasons of the federal connexions it may make, nor the grounds on which it stood by means of them. We may travel in history for ages through many regions, but it will be always as in a thick fog. We may see in successive steps the groups of those figures and facts only which are immediately local and temporary ; but the *ensemble* of the piece will be hid from us and unintelligible. We must here have recourse to the learned Antiquary ; the light of his discoveries must dispel the cloud ; when it does so, the prospect will open upon the *mind's eye* in all its extent, in true perspective, and clothed in all its genuine colours. The objects and figures in the piece will be seen in their proper bearings and proportions ; a system as pervading the whole will be seen in the design ; the connexion between causes and effects will be seen in the execution ; and *history may thus become experimental knowledge.*

While we approve the liberal ideas of the Author concerning the study of antiquities, we cannot but allow, that he discovers the ability of reducing to practice the rules which he is solicitous to establish. When he dives into ancient times he displays the true spirit of a philosophical antiquary ; and he has certainly thrown a great deal of new information upon Roman, Grecian, and Egyptian story. It is by the application of antiquarian research to particular and intricate topics of history, that he elucidates the real objects of a study, which has been degraded by the unmeaning industry of men, who were busy to collect what they could not comprehend, and who gaped with amazement over the wisdom of ages of which they knew nothing.

But that our Readers may have a specimen before them, from which to judge for themselves of Mr. Pownall's merit, we shall exhibit an extract from what he has observed concerning the Books of Moses.

' If the Antiquary, as some grave Divines have done, was thus to consider the Antidiluvian history, which the books of Moses give, as an *Apologue* exhibiting the general train of natural and human events, classed under mythic representations, instead of taking it as an *historic narrative* of particular events, placed in the actual periods of their existence, and arranged in the real series of ~~time~~ time ; he would obviate all these objections which arise to the *historic* part, and might show, that, taken in that view, it gives a much more accurate account of nature, of man, and of the divine dispensations ; and in every point comes up more fully and comprehensively to the purpose for which it seems to have been written, than under any idea of recording particulars as a history.

' This purpose is, in a kind of preface to a code of laws by which the institution of a theocracy is established, to give such a general account of the origin of things and of man ; of his deviations from the end of his being by various corruptions ; and of his

his Fall from Innocence to such a state of sin and punishment, as requires the offering of sacrifices of expiation of his guilt, and of deprecation of his punishment; perpetually repeated until some one general full and sufficient expiation should be finally made and accepted; also of offerings for the ransom of souls, and of atonement for crimes. This institution made various regulations in the animal economy, not so much from any foundation which they had in nature, as being constant outward pledges of inward obedience to, and faith in, the divine regimen. One branch prescribed regulations and distinctions respecting food, deriving from positive institution and command. Another branch of these laws meant to give operation to, and to maintain, that exclusive principle of generation, by which this race, chosen for special ends of providence, were to be kept separate from the race of man in common. A third branch contained the establishment of a system of sacrifices suited to this theology; and of ceremonies attendant on this particular state of the individual and community.

This book commences with an account of the origin of things, which rightly understood, is the most truly and strictly philosophic account which ever has been given, or is at present any where extant. The present enlightened state of philosophy can neither reprobate nor alter any thing in it. It does only confirm it.

When this book speaks of the origin of the world, it does not go beyond the bounds of human knowledge into metaphysics; it does not attempt to describe that act of the Creator which supposes the *bringing of Nothing into Being*, which is nonsense in terms, and contradicts what it predicates; but in the purest light of wisdom, and in the most refined sentiments of sublimity, writes, GOD SAID, LET IT BE; AND IT WAS. This comprehensive expression communicates, without presuming at defined terms, the undefined pre-existence of the SUPREAM FIRST CAUSE, when *matter* did not exist; and also the commencement of the existence of matter by the will, and at the command of this FIRST CAUSE *acting by that will*.

This account of a visible world does not presume to ascend above what is seen. It takes up the account of the origin of things at that state, to which philosophic analysis can, in its highest range attain. It divides its account into the four classes of existence, the origin of the planetary and terrestrial system; the origin of animal life; and the origin of man. This is supposed to proceed by six distinct periods, called metaphorically *Dates* (for they cannot *actually* be described as such before the state of things existed, which divides time into night and day). These periods on the whole are arranged rather to suit the classes of creation, than the order of time; yet under each class they follow the order of the process of nature, in what may be called the order of time.

As light or heat is visibly the first material instrumental cause and support of the state and being of the system, the creation of light is represented as the first process. God said, *Let there be light, and there was light*. This is the first Period.

Experience of existing facts, the philosophic investigation of the powers of nature, and the operation of those powers on matter, conspire to prove, that the globe in its original state was a moist

lump of mud, a chaos in which the terrestrial elements were all in an indifcrete mass of confused matter. The Mosaic account of this earth being brought into its present system of being commenced from this state: The earth was without form, and the Spirit of God moved upon the face of the *waters*, and directed the effects of light or heat to operate upon it. The first effect or process of this operation, which is represented as the *second period* of creation, is the separating of the *expansive* * liquid, the unfixing the elastic fluid, the air (the cause and food of all life), from the waters which still covered the face of the whole earth; and God said, *let there be expansion in the midst of the waters, and let it divide the waters from the waters*; here comes in concurrent in the order of time, and the process of nature; the first process of the third class, that is, the production of *aquatic* animal life: *And the waters brought forth abundantly*. That this globe was once in this state, an *universal habitation for aquatic life*, appears from the still visible traces and consequences of this state. The shells, the skeletons, and other *exuviae* of animals, of aquatic life, are found in every part of the globe in the deepest vallies, and on the top of the highest mountains, even in the bowels of the earth. That they should be so found every where, and more especially on the tops of mountains, is so far from extraordinary, that it is a natural concomitant circumstance of this state.

That the *principles* of vegetative life existed before the earth was reduced to that form which made it a proper nidus for the vegetables themselves coming into life, is directly said †, and that the same case took place with respect to animal life, may fairly be deduced from the whole tenor of the account; namely, that the *plastick fond* of their corporal mechanism was in like manner prepared before it was raised like man out of the dust of the earth.

That the constant operation and unceasing effect of light and heat produces a continually encreasing exhalation and exsiccation of this globe, so that the terrestrial parts of this globe perpetually gain upon the aqueous, has been proved by the greatest philosophers; I need not mention Sir Isaac Newton at the head of these. That internal inflammations and explosions in the bowels of the earth are, and have been at all times, for myriads of ages back, constantly making alterations and inequalities on the surface of it, is equally true and fact, seen in the effect. These secondary causes operating instrumentally as the act of the Creator, would form this *third period* of the Genesis, and throw the earth into such form, that the waters would be *gathered together into one place, and the dry land would appear*. The moment that the dry land was thus become a *nidus* for the vegetable life; The plants and every herb of the field ‡, the *fond* of whose existence had been before prepared and made, would now vegetate, and the earth would of course bring forth grass and herb yielding seed, and the fruit-tree, and every tree of the field, which is represented as the *third period*. Under this state

* Liquidum Cœlum. Ovid.

† Genesis, chap. ii. v. 5.

‡ Genesis, chap. ii. ver. 5.

of the globe, the second and third process of the third class would in the course of nature and the order of time, come into concurrent effect; that is, the fowls that swim on the rivers, lakes, and seas; that fly in the air, and live on the face of the earth; every living thing *after its kind*, cattle, and creeping thing, and the beast of the earth, would be brought forth to a life prepared for them, from a mudus which the Creator had animated. This is represented as the *fifth period*.

* The giving system to the second class of God's work comes forward in this *apologue*, not as a narrative in the order of time, but as the *fourth period* according to the general classing of the parts of creation. This period does not seem to represent the creation of the planetary system, but as describing the effect of the rotation of the earth round its axis, by which day and night were divided, by which the greater light ruled the day, and the lesser light ruled the night; by which the lights in the firmament became signs to days, months, and years, and the variety of seasons, and by which they were produced.

When the whole system, thus far perfected, was prepared for man, God formed man of the dust of the ground, and breathed into his nostrils the breath of life, by which he became a living soul, after God's own image. This is the *sixth and last period* of the creation. A *seventh period* is that in which God is said to have rested from his work, and which period he is represented as having therefore blessed and sanctified. The account of the sanctifying the seventh day as a sabbath, cannot be meant as a narrative of fact, which inspired truth relates as *history*, because it is contradicted by a different fact in a different * reason given from the same authority, for God's sanctifying the sabbath, or seventh day †. It is an application of the *apologue* in this part, as it is made to apply in every other part, to the theocratic institution of the Israelites.

When these days are understood to be *periods, and not days*, as they are vulgarly conceived and translated; when understood to be classed rather according to the parts of the general system, than placed historically in the order of time; the Antiquary will find this Mosaic account of the Genesis of the world confirmed by the facts and phenomena which exist in every part of the system of the earth and heavens. Nor is this truly philosophic account involved in any such childish, silly, ignorant notion as the giving so short a space of time to the existence of this globe, as it must be confined to, if it literally began not more than a week before that period whereat our accounts or history of man commence. The author of this book never meant, and does not here or elsewhere give any such idea: The spirit of wisdom and truth which directed this account

* In this day, thou shalt do no work; that thy man servant, &c. may rest as well as thou. Remember that thou wast a servant in the land of Egypt, and that the Lord thy God brought thee out thence; therefore the Lord commanded thee to keep the Sabbath-day.

† Deut. chap. v. v. 14.

is raised above all such vulgar unphilosophic stuff. This earth, and this system of the heavens, may have existed and been going on, in the process of the operations and laws of nature (called here the acts of creation) for myriads of ages, which the Mosaic accounts divided into six periods. To this account the internal structure of the earth itself bears incontrovertible evidence. I do strangely mistake all reasoning, and all scale of ideas, if this reference to the state of this earth, and of this system so explained, is not the best commentary to the Mosaic Genesis: and if the sublime idea of it will not be the more elevated, and the divine philosophic truth of it the more demonstrably confirmed thereby.'

In the present performance the general view of the Author is to explain the importance of investigations into antiquity, not only by reasonings, but by examples. He takes an opportunity, however, to inform his Reader that he has carried his inquiries into topics more extensive and more useful. He has investigated the great revolution which took place upon the overthrow of the Roman Empire; and he has entered minutely into the history and manners of the Barbarians who accomplished it. What is a far more curious speculation, he has turned his curiosity to the establishment of the new system of occupancy, polity, and government, which then appeared in the world. This led him to form his opinions concerning the *feudal state* of property in land, and of the *military state* of service in the person, as a fundamental rule of the new *imperium*. Advancing in this immense field, he meditated concerning the various jurisdictions, laws, customs, and rights, which distinguished the political oeconomy of the Middle Ages. Having satisfied himself with comprehending and sketching a general picture of the face of Europe, under the dominion or empire of fiefs, he enquired into the road which the antiquary of each country ought to take in developing its antiquities; and he himself applied the advantages of his researches and discoveries to England, under the Romans, the Danes, the Saxons, and the Normans.

Nor is this all. The ingenious Author has likewise informed his Reader that he has investigated the antiquities of abstract science; and has ventured to unfold the commercial, mechanical, and agricultural arts, in so far as they are necessary and ornamental to man.

The volume which is now before us, he considers as the first part of the undertaking in which he has engaged; and the topics which we have just enumerated, form its second and third parts. These we cannot but account as highly interesting; and we believe, that the present age is fully prepared to attend to speculations of this kind. We would, there-

therefore, earnestly recommend it to the Author, not to withhold them from the public.*

Upon the whole, it is our duty to bestow great praise on this Writer. His learning is deep; his industry is persevering; and he has talents for discovery and invention. But while he plunges into the labyrinth of ancient times, it would be improper to say, that his steps are always firm and sure, that he never treads upon treacherous ground, and that his reason keeps a constant guard upon his fancy. Where much, however, is performed, it is irksome to insist upon faults; and it is sufficient for us to observe, that his chief defect has not a reference to his matter, but to his manner and style. In the former he is stiff and awkward: in the latter he sometimes wants perspicuity, and he never exhibits refinement or elegance.

ART. IV. *A View of the History of Great Britain during the Administration of Lord North, to the Second Session of the Fifteenth Parliament.* In two Parts. With Statements of the Public Expediture in that Period. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Wilkie.

THE historian of his own times, although better acquainted with particular facts and circumstances, than those that come after him, cannot, however, take so just, so interesting, and important a view of the scene which forms the general subject of his description and narration. Human events and actions are best illustrated by other events and actions which are brought forth in the course of time. This is the sun which illuminates the conduct of nations and men, on all sides; which displays the causes and consequences of public measures; the motives that gave them birth; and their various effects upon various objects. Not only are records brought to light, which had been buried in the closets of individuals, and the archives of kingdoms, Time elucidates the transactions of nations, and the conduct of commanders and statesmen, by furnishing matter for a vast variety of comparisons. It is by comparison only that knowledge of any kind is acquired: and it is the noble and wide field of comparison, which yields

* His reason for withholding them discovers his modesty, but in our opinion it is not of the smallest force. They are 'deferred,' says he, 'as my Bookseller doubts whether a work written on subjects of this nature, by a person of no literary character, will become an article of sale sufficient to pay the cost of publishing, although as I never take money from a Bookseller, the copy costs him nothing.' Introd. p. xxvii.

those flowers which adorn and give unction to the compositions of the interesting and sublime historian.

It is true, that a genius like the Abbé Raynal may tread hard, according to the phrase of Mr. Hume, on the heels of time, and convey, notwithstanding, both entertainment and instruction to his Reader. The vigour of such an imagination suggests an infinite variety of analogies; and the ardour of a daring and inventive genius is always disposed, and sometimes enabled, from the past to anticipate the future, and to open instructive views into succeeding ages. But, to give a charm and novelty to facts with which every one is acquainted, is a very difficult matter. This is a task, to which few are equal, and which men of high genius should alone undertake.

The Author of the Historical View of Lord North's administration, does not express any sense of the difficulties and disadvantages we have just mentioned, but acknowledges that,

'The Writer who attempts to lay before his countrymen an impartial History of his own time, engages in a difficult, and on many accounts, an unpleasant work. He is himself liable to be drawn imperceptibly into attachments; and there are few readers who can reason calmly and judge dispassionately, of present ministers and measures.

'These considerations,' he continues, 'might have led him to suppress, for some years, the latter part of this History, (which he has long been forming with some degree of laborious research) if the posture of public affairs did not appear to him to require the recent history of this country to be related now; that by an epitome of the important transactions in which this kingdom has been engaged, the whole may be brought into a close point of view, and the public may from thence be enabled to form a juster opinion of the measures which have been pursued, and how far the business of the state has been executed faithfully, assiduously, and wisely.'

With regard to this apology, that is, with regard to the importance or utility of this performance, to the public, it must be confessed, that it is not by any means so great as the Author supposes: for the facts he relates are recorded and authenticated in innumerable periodical productions of the press: and *views* too, in great abundance, of the period he describes, are to be found in political pamphlets and dissertations. But, the Author will say, that his is the only "*Impartial View*." On this subject, however, the world will judge for itself: nor is it probable that the opinions of the Author will gain many converts among those who entertain opinions contrary to those which he maintains.

A clear arrangement, and an accuracy in the statement of

of facts, particularly of the expenditure of the public money, form the chief merit of this performance. The style of the Author is in many instances deficient in point of grammar, He speculates but little: nor is there in his speculations any thing of that novelty and boldness, that depth and penetration, which we admire in a GIBBON, a HUME, and a VOLTAIRE; and which diffuse a charm around even the tritest subjects. Nevertheless, *The View of the History of Great Britain during the Administration of Lord North*, may be read without disgust, and even with a degree of amusement.

The following extract is a comparative view of the American Colonies and the Mother Country:

'The Colonies and Mother Country presented, at this time, in strong opposition, the lineaments of their different ages. Great Britain grown old in prosperity, become wealthy, proud, assuming: impatient of every restraint, or of the slightest contravention of her mandates, but at the same time, improvident and lavish. An apostate from those principles to which she had been habitually attached: indifferent to the welfare of others, mistaken in what constituted her own. America on the other hand, rising in all the vigour of advancing maturity, without specie, but rich in the products of a genial soil, the labours of a hardy race of seamen, and a growing commerce. The want of the precious metals, though attended with some inconveniencies, contributed greatly to fix the character and manners of the people. It served to place happiness rather in what was to be enjoyed, than in what was to be amassed. Avarice appeared in all its deformity in the eyes of a people who had no titled greatness to aspire to, and with whom, honest industry was a security against extreme necessity. In such a country, and in such an age, a man possessing a philosophic and reflecting mind would wish to live; and there have been times, in which it would have been considered as the glory and happiness of a prince to reign over subjects so free, so increasing, and so happy, 'ere the science of finance gave oppression a new form. But America was much more at her ease than England, and she must be brought to contribute a reasonable proportion to the necessities of the parent state, whence originated the beloved idea of subjecting America to internal taxation. Her population too increased in a more rapid degree than any other country had been known to do. According to estimates made, which have never been controverted, some of the North American Colonies double their inhabitants in sixteen years, whilst the population of the British Isles is not supposed to be on the advance. From hence it was self evident, that the Colonies in a much shorter time than fifty years, would be equal in population to the Mother-country, perhaps much more populous; and when arrived at such an height, what probability was there that the present subordination would continue.

'So long ago as the year 1733*, an act was passed, which laid

certain duties on all foreign spirits, molasses, and sugars imported into the plantations; these imposts were submitted to, and the distinction between commercial regulations and internal taxation was not dwelt on, until the fatal introduction of the stamp-act; which, upon every principal of national interest, without considering the question of legal right, or the expediency of exerting the power, should either have been inflexibly adhered to, or that kind of taxation abandoned for ever. The evil genius of this country caused neither the one nor the other to happen. The stamp-act was repealed, and a duty was laid upon teas and various other articles imported into America. This was no more an internal tax than the former one on sugars, indeed the duties last levied were on merchandize from Great Britain, the others on foreign products; but the Americans chose so to consider it, and many other causes of discontent prevailed. Had Great Britain, at that time, been distinguished for public spirit, love of liberty, and scrupulous attention to a rigid œconomy in the expenditure of public money, the effects of which appeared in seizing every proper means of reducing the national debt; and had the Americans been called upon by an administration pursuing such views, to contribute to such a purpose, their feelings would not have revolted from the demand. Indeed, they did not dispute the propriety of the mother-country making a requisition, they only asked to be permitted to raise the contribution by acts of their own assemblies. Had such a mode been assented to here, the opposite extremities of the Atlantic would have been united in one common cause, and the British constitution would have grown permanent even from age itself. Mutual confidence could alone build up such a fabric, for although the two countries were united by common ancestry, by participating in the same free constitution of government; by professing the tenets of protestantism; by commercial and friendly intercourse, and the exchange of reciprocal benefits, yet they were separated by an ocean of three thousand miles expanse: which, while it promoted that amicable commercial intercourse, created distinct interests in the two countries, which began to foment jealousies and mutual disgust. Each country reasoned according to the opinions most prevalent there, and every age has its leading sentiments. The one carried the principles of civil liberty and the natural rights of mankind to a great height; the other was no less tenacious of the doctrine of subordination to the parent state, and submission to the regulations made by the legislature. Had the contest arisen half a century ago, many of the arguments which were urged on each side would not then have been produced. A government founded on the principles of freedom, could not possibly be brought into a more perplexing situation than that, into which the dispute with the Colonies threw Great Britain. Perhaps no sovereign ever swayed the sceptre of these realms, that was any way equal to the object to be effected, except Queen Elizabeth. That great princess, who came to the throne at a most critical period, knew how to accommodate herself to the temper of the times. She possessed all the soothing arts which are calculated to persuade, and knew as well, both when and how, to enforce obedience. She was served by some of the ablest statesmen

that

that this country ever produced, and extended her views more into futurity, than any one of her successors, the great Nassau only excepted.

The different views that were entertained concerning America at the important crisis of the meeting of Parliament in November 1774, are thus stated by this judicious, and for the most part, candid writer.

‘ But however ministry were proved to have been deceived in their expectations from America, yet the sudden dissolution of parliament became, from that very disappointment, the means by which they continued in power. Things were now brought to such a crisis, that a House of Commons, guided by the voice of the people, which in the concluding session of a parliament is essential to their immediate views, dared not to have proceeded upon a plan of coercion. It was indeed now generally understood, that the new modelling the form of government throughout North America, and securing that continent to Great Britain, by introducing such regulations as might form habits of subordination and obedience, was the favourite objects of the Sovereign, and to propose the means by which such a renovation of loyalty might be effected, was the surest introduction to royal favour; notwithstanding which, the nation was very much divided in opinion concerning the proper conduct to be observed towards America. Some were for coercion, because they hoped to derive a revenue therefrom, and the lowest plotters, whom neither nature nor education had qualified to decide upon an intricate subject, thought themselves able to adjust this dispute, by only asking the plain question, “ Why should not the Americans pay taxes as well as we?” National pride, as well as an idea of national interest, strongly enforced the same doctrine. Superadded to these considerations, motives neither national nor laudable, actuated not a few to foment the quarrel with America: such as the prospect of lucrative contracts or appointments, and a distribution of the confiscated estates of the American ringleaders. All these were powerful incentives to action; however, the contrary opinion was rescued from contempt, both by the numbers and the consequence of those who avowed it. The country gentlemen, although the pillars of prerogative, foresaw that the land-tax must be advanced to four shillings in the pound, as soon as the sword should be drawn; and although the omnipotence of Great Britain to enforce her laws was not doubted, yet whether a revenue could be drawn from America, should her submission be secured, appeared highly problematical. The commercial interest was yet more deeply affected by an open rupture. The Colonies stood indebted to the British merchants about four millions sterling, which though a vast sum, was no more than the amount of a twelve month’s commerce. This respectable body of men, not only saw themselves deprived of a most lucrative trade, but cut off from all hope of obtaining speedy payment of the sums due to them, and in danger of losing them for ever. A numerous body of manufacturers derived their only means of subsistence from the intercourse with the Colonies, and therefore considered the non-importation agreement which their consumers had entered into, as the greatest possible evil, and were anxious for a reconciliation

conciliation upon any terms. Besides these classes of men, whose particular and immediate interests urged them to become strenuous advocates in the American cause, there were many people, who though influenced by no private or interested views, could neither see the justice nor expediency of compelling the Americans to absolute submission, and the operative principle of private interest among the bulk, gave an emergency and force to such speculative reasoning.

The ingenious Reader will not be displeased with the Author's account of Dr. Franklin.

‘ This man (who formerly for many years carried on the business of a printer at Philadelphia) may be considered as the first fruits of American genius ; and perhaps no man ever owed more to the time and place of his birth ; had he been a native of London instead of Boston, and born into the same rank of society*, the world would probably never have heard his name either as a philosopher or politician. Pent within a populous city, his occupation would have been more laborious, and his incentives to cultivate speculative science, would have been suppressed by every consideration of interest or ambition. He might have distinguished himself as an ingenious artist, but he would neither have formed an hypothesis to account for the phenomenon of the *Aurora Borealis*, nor have traced out the principles and operations of the electrical fluid ; and what is much more important, he would never have become a powerful engine to shake a great empire, and to erect a congeries of republics from its dismembered parts ; nor would he have had the appropriated distinction of being the principal agent to introduce a new æra into the history of mankind, which may prove as important as any which have yet elapsed, by procuring a legislative power to the western hemisphere. In this view he may be considered as a greater enemy to England than even Philip II. or Louis XIV.

‘ His love of science marked his early years† ; and, as if no event of his life was destined to be unimportant, even an intrigue which caused him to quit Boston and settle in Philadelphia, brought him into a wider sphere of action, and placed him in a more respectable situation : he had, however, passed the meridian of life, before he rendered himself conspicuous as a politician. As his influence became extensive, it was exerted to inculcate among the people the virtues of frugality, temperance, and industry : and all his labours were directed to advance the essential interests of humanity. He possessed the plainness of manners, and precision of thought, which characterised John de Witt, but he ever escaped falling under any popular odium, either by being master of superior address, or acting under more fortuitous contingencies than that devoted patriot.

* His father was a tallow-chandler.

† There are some letters now extant which he wrote to Sir Hans Sloane, in the year 1726, when he was only twenty-one years of age.

‘ Trammelled in no system, he may be said to be a philosopher without the rules, a politician without adopting the Roman panderects, and a statesman without having sacrificed to the graces : possessing a diversity of genius without a versatility of temper.

‘ Such was the man, thoughtful, deliberate, collected, and circumspective ; who, when more than seventy years of age, appeared at the court of France, first, as an Agent, and afterwards as a Plenipotentiary, from the New American States. All ranks vied with each other in paying their court to this hoary-headed sage. Among the subjects of an absolute monarch, it became fashionable to admire the spirit of freedom, and the new member of the corps diplomatique was complimented in an hyperbole of panygeric*. Public admiration, however, is no proof of merit ; the frivolous frequently obtain it when it is denied to the wise. His negotiations with the court of France required uncommon abilities, and that he has succeeded in the arduous work, proves, that during his long life, he had practically studied the philosophy of man.’

The following strictures on a famous position of the Abbé Raynal, concerning a tendency in the North American provinces to sterility, merit attention :

‘ A late publication, attributed to the Abbé Raynal†, (which indeed possesses all his animation and strong sense, but is remarkably inaccurate as to facts, and somewhat extravagant in sentiment) supposes that the Provinces in North America are not capable of supporting more than ten millions of inhabitants, and that the exhausted state of the soil, will, in a short time, render the lands now cultivated, of little value. But is there any thing to bound their progress to the westward ? Does this writer make no account of the immense tract of country about the five great lakes ? Are the Banks of the Mississippi to be for ever unoccupied, and only occasionally visited by parties of Indians, whose numbers are every year lessening, by the vices they have imbibed from their intercourse with Europeans ? Can any physical reason be assigned, why all the lands to the westward of the Alligany mountains should not, in some distant period of time, become as populous as Switzerland, Austria, or Germany ? The tendency of the earth to sterility in that country is a false assumption. Nearly the whole province of Connecticut, at this day, consists of rich land, and though the snow is in general the only manure, yields such abundance, that the inhabitants send out of the Province as much corn, and other provisions, as are consumed in it‡. That the land in many places has been worn out by excessive use, and a total ignorance of the arts of husbandry, by which its genial qualities are preserved, is acknowledged. In the year 1756 it was the practice of the farmers about Albany, when the river was frozen, to deposit their dung on the ice, to be carried away by the stream on the return of spring. The English officers

* The motto affixed to his bust at Paris, is, *Eripuit calo fulmen, sceptrumque tyrannis.*

† The Revolution of America.

‡ General History of Connecticut, just published, p. 243. 244.

in the last war, first taught the Americans the value of this compost to enrich the land; and there is no doubt as the luxuriance of nature abates, a more skilful method of cultivation will restore the powers of vegetation.

From these extracts the Reader will be sensible that the Author of the publication under review, is a man of good understanding as well as information. Yet he intermixes with his observations many remarks that are light and trifling. That "human expectancy is the vainest of all vain things," may be very true; but it is no very profound reflection. It certainly was no aggravation of the political conduct of the Pennsylvanians, that "the very name of their capital denoted brotherly love*." Such puerile observations as these we often meet with in this Writer; but they are seldom found in the productions of a cultivated mind.

ART. V. *A System of Vegetables*, translated from the *Systema Vegetabilium* of Linnæus, by a Botanical Society at Litchfield, 8vo, 5s. sewed, Leigh and Sotheby.

THE study of Botany in whatever light it is considered, can scarcely be recommended with too much warmth. Of the other sciences, when too eagerly pursued, some are injurious to the organs of sense, others to the constitution in general, and others again while they improve the understanding, are suspected of hardening the heart. But a diligent examination of the vegetable kingdom may serve to repair the damages which the health of learned men too often sustains from sedentary employments, and at the same time may teach them this important lesson,

"To look through nature up to nature's God,"

The fair sex likewise may derive considerable advantages from the same source. The fixed attention which the comparison of natural objects, with descriptions of them necessarily requires, will bestow that steadiness and solidity in which the female mind is generally supposed to be deficient; and botanical excursions will tend to alleviate those nervous complaints by which modern life is embittered beyond the example of past ages. Skill in gardening and agriculture has been seldom united with skill in Botany, and yet their mutual connection is so obvious, that it hardly needs to be remarked how much those useful arts are likely to be improved, if the system of Linnæus was rendered easy of access to the Gardener and Farmer.

Attempts to translate the writings of this great naturalist into modern languages are attended with difficulties that do

* See page 177.

not occur in the version of other authors; for the translator of Linnæus must invent almost all the terms he employs.

These considerations will probably induce the public to regard the performance before us with a favourable eye. It is not however the first undertaking of the kind. In 1776, Withering published a *Flora Britannica* in English, of which the present translators justly observe that by entirely omitting the sexual distinctions, which are essential to the philosophy of the system, and by introducing many English generic names, which either bear no analogy to those of Linnæus, or are derived from such as he has rejected or applied to other genera, he has rendered many parts of his work unintelligible to the Latin Botanist, equally difficult to the English scholar, and has loaded the science with the addition of new words. The language of the performance now before us appears to have been studied with greater care and formed with superior skill and address. We shall lay before our readers a short account of the principles, by which the translators have been guided in this most difficult part of their undertaking.

As new ideas require new terms to represent them, and must therefore be explained to beginners, it is of no consequence from what language they are derived. Hence the terms of the original have been retained with English terminations. *Corolla* is translated *Cerol*, *petalum* *petal*, *panicula* *panicle*, *verticillum* *verticil*, &c. for the sake of using *corollet*, *epetaled*, *panicled*, *verticiled*, &c. Our language affording few generic names, those of Linnæus have been universally adopted, thus *Triticum*, *Hordeum*, &c. include variety of other grasses besides the wheat, barley, &c. which we cultivate for food,—whence it would have been productive of much confusion to have given to families any of these English names which belong to individuals. The well established English names are however added in *Italics*. With respect to diminutive terms the translators have endeavoured to form such from our own language as may easily be familiarized to an English ear, and are intelligible to the latin Botanist as from *leaf*, *leaflet*, *from stalk*, *stalklet*, *calyc*, *calycle*. In framing the compound terms they have closely adhered to those of the author, as *egg-lanced*, *linear-lanced*, *clasping-decurrent*, *diffuse-procumbent*, &c. But in the formation of these compounds two difficulties occurred. The first was to determine whether words describing the form of leaves, such as *ovatum*, *carinatum*, &c. should be translated by the correspondent words *egg'd*, *keel'd*, &c. or by the compounds *egg-shaped*, *keel-shaped*, &c. The following reasons led them

them to adopt the former, 1st, because they more exactly resembled the original, and 2d, were more concise, 3d, because shape includes the whole external surface, whereas these terms express only the outline of a particular section, 4th, because when they are a second time compounded, as egg-lance-shaped, &c. they do not so readily suggest the ideas intended to be expressed by them as the simpler compounds, egg-lanced, &c. The second difficulty was to determine whether some of the compounds should be used as adjectives, or as participles passive, since in several cases their meaning differs with this difference of construction: thus threadform signifies in the shape of a thread, but thread-formed means formed of threads. After much deliberation it was resolved to use them adjectively.

From this general view of the plan upon which the language has been constructed and a few extracts from the original, the present version, and that by Withering, our readers will, we hope, be enabled to form a just opinion concerning the merits of the publication before us.

* *Avia flexuosa*, fols. setaceis, culmis subnudis, panicula divaricata, pedunculis flexuosis.

Hairgrass twisted, with leaves like bristles, straw almost naked, panicle straddling, fruitstalks zig-zag. Withering.

Aira winding, leaves bristly, culms nakedish, panicle divaricated, peduncles winding.

* *Veronica hederifolia*. flos. solitariis, fols. cordatis, planis quinquelobis.

Speewell ivy leaved, with solitary flowers, leaves heart shaped flat, divided into 5 lobes, Withering.

V. I. flowers solitary, leaves hearted, flat 5 lobed.

* *Galium pusillum*. fols. octonis linearibus hispidis acuminatis subimbricatis, pedunculis dichotomis.

Goose grass little. The leaves growing by eights, rough with strong hairs, strap-shaped, tapering at the end, somewhat tiled, fruitstalks forked. Withering.

G. Puny, leaves eightfold hispid linear pointed subimbricated, peduncles two forked.

* *G. Mollugo foliis octonis ovato-linearibus subserratis patentissimis mucronatis, caule flaccido, ramis patentibus.*

G. Madder, the leaves growing by eights, betwixt egg and strap-shaped, expanding, somewhat serrated and sharp-pointed, stem limber, branches expanding. Withering.

G. M. Leaves eightfold egg-linear, somewhat sawed, most expanding daggered, stem flaccid, branches expanding.

These harsh and uncouth expressions will probably offend the English reader, but let him remember that science sacrifices grace to brevity and smoothness to precision; and that the language of the original does not sound less dissonant to the ear of the classical scholar.

This

This first number contains the four first classes with their orders, and the first order of the fifth class. The whole work we are told will be comprehended in two additional numbers. The editors announce their intention of proceeding to the version of the genera and species plantarum, when they have compleated their present undertaking. A very respectable list of gentlemen by whom they have been occasionally assisted appears at the end of the preface, among whom are Dr. Johnson, Dr. Hope, Linnæus jun. Mr. Hudson, and others.

ART. VI. *Nummorum Veterum Populorum et Urbium* qui in musæo Gulielmi Hunter asservantur, Descriptio figuris illustrata. Opera et Studio Caroli Combe S. R. et G. A. Lond. Soc. 4to. 2l. 15 s. boards. Nicol, the King's Bookfeller.

THE study of ancient coins and medals is intimately connected with that of literature and the polite arts. The figures by which they are distinguished are allusions to memorable events, to customs, manners, fashions, opinions, and all those circumstances which form the great outlines in the characters of different nations. Hence medals assist the chronologist in fixing dates, and the historian in ascertaining facts. In criticism they serve, in many instances, to display the full force of poetical and other compositions; and exhibit a kind of visible representation of the spirit and genius of former times, and even convey some idea of the general contour of national countenances. The proportions and forms in furniture and architecture; the dresses, the attitudes, and the sentiments which glow on ancient medals, furnish the most valuable hints to the architect, the statuary, and the painter, and give the most animated lessons of the BEAUTIFUL and SUBLIME. There is scarcely any art whatever which is not capable of deriving improvement from those curious remains of antiquity. Even that art which professes to move and charm the soul by a just combination of sound and numbers, even musick, perhaps, may enrich her stores by a nice attention to ancient medals; and from the forms of musical instruments, catch some of the affecting notes of the ancients. But this is a subject which, as Mr. Combe observes, needs not any illustration. The connections we have just now remarked are obvious, and universally allowed.

Men possessed of leisure and genius, have not only been at great pains in collecting ancient coins and medals, but have sometimes given conspicuous proofs and examples of

their eminent subserviency to the interests of literature. But neither Dr. Hunter, nor Mr. Combe has subjoined any dissertation whatever to the accurate description with which the world is now presented of one of the largest and most curious collection of Medals that was ever possessed by any individual. The virtuoso who collects, and at the same time reasons from antiquities, is an historian who does not confine himself to facts and dates, but who pursues a chain of cause and effect, and marking in his copious course whatever is interesting, speaks to the general sense and feelings of mankind. The industrious collector who satisfies himself with gathering coins; with arranging them in the forced and arbitrary order of the alphabet; with measuring their circumference, ascertaining their weight, and shape, and the quality of their metals, may be considered as the compiler of a journal or chronicle, whose rude and indigested mass affords of itself but little entertainment or instruction, but which furnishes materials for a composition fitted to yield both. Mr. Combe is contented with this secondary fame. His descriptions, though accurate and regular, must necessarily appear dry and uninteresting to all but mere antiquaries. To gentlemen so conversant with such stores of antiquity as Dr. Hunter and Mr. Combe, who, according to the advice of the poet, *handled Grecian medals by night and by day**, many reflections must have occurred that would have shed light on the walks of the elegant arts, and polite literature. By publishing these to the world, they would have acquired a superior and more lasting fame than it is in the power of the greatest collection of medals to bestow: *monumentum, ære perennius*.

In the Volume under Review there appears first a dedication by Dr. Hunter to the Queen. Next, a preface to the reader by Mr. Combe, in which he gives an account of the nature of his work, and of the collection of ancient coins he undertakes to describe.

The coins in Dr. Hunter's museum, he tells us, are accurately described, and arranged, according to the names of the cities and nations to which they belong, after the order of the alphabet. Engravings are subjoined in the latter part of the volume of such coins as either have not been published at all; or which have been published in a slovenly and incorrect manner. These engravings are well executed, and exact copies of the originals.

Of the number of coins described in this performance, the reader will be able to form some judgment when he is

* ——— Vos exemplaria Græca
Nocturna versate manu, versate diurna.

told, that the description of each is comprised in one or two lines at most; and that the descriptive part of the publication takes up 354 pages in quarto.

The method in which the Medals are described is this. The page is divided into five columns. In the first column there is the number of coins belonging to each nation or city. In the second the species of metal, brass, silver or gold. In the third the size or magnitude of the coin, which is measured by a scale subjoined to the plates. In the fourth their weights adjusted to grains English. And in the fifth, what is properly called the description of the coins, which gives an account in a few words of the figures that are stamped on them, and of the inscriptions, if there are any.

A pretty full account is given in this work, of the rise and progress of Dr. Hunter's museum: and the names are recorded of the persons whose donations have contributed chiefly to its increase. A continuation is promised of this laborious performance, containing coins, Persian, Phœnician, Samaritan, Palmyrene, and Carthaginian; coins of antient and especially Grecian kings; coins of the Emperors, struck in the different cities and colonies of Greece; Roman coins never before published; and coins Saxon and English; with an appendix which is to contain an account of some hundreds of coins that fell into the Editor's hands after this volume which is already published, had been given out to be printed.

ART. VII. *The Works of the Right Rev. Thomas Newton, D. D.*
&c. in 3 vols 4to. 3l. 15s. Boards. J. F. and Charles Rivington,
 1782.

IF we consider the office of a Bishop with attention, and take a view of the various and important duties he becomes bound to perform, it must appear, that the episcopal charge is an undertaking truly arduous; and that the faithful performance of its duties merits the warmest approbation and applause. When death releases a Prelate of this description from his pastoral labours, we may surely address him in the words of the judge of all men, "Well done good and faithful servant, enter thou into the joy of thy Lord." Both from the public and private life, as well as from the writings of the late worthy Bishop now before us, as far as we are acquainted with the one, or can judge of the other, we think that the plaudit of the wise and good will follow him beyond the grave. Others may have possessed more critical acumen, greater strength of reasoning, a more refined taste in composition, talents more splendid of every kind; but writings which seem to proceed with mildness, and

unassumingly from the heart, which speak at once the words of gentleness and religion, will naturally come home to the breast of every reader.

Of the three volumes now presented to the public, the first is mostly occupied by the well-known dissertations on the prophecies. These do not at present come under critical investigation, as the world and they are old acquaintances. "Some account of the author's life, with anecdotes of several of his friends," "sentiments of a moderate man concerning toleration," and "a letter to the new Parliament, with hints of some regulations which the nation hopes and expects from them," make up the remainder of the first volume. In the speech and sentiments of a moderate man, the Bishop appears an advocate for toleration as far as is consistent with the interests of religion and the safety of the state. The letter to the new Parliament contains many hints which deserve the attention of the British legislature. Of the life and anecdotes we shall speak in the conclusion of this article. The second volume contains dissertations chiefly on some parts of the Old Testament, with a few charges and occasional sermons; and dissertations on some parts of the New Testament.

The views of the right reverend author in these latter publications may be best understood from the information of his lordship's Editor in the preface to the work.

'Disabled' says he, 'as the Bishop was by ill health from performing his duty in the pulpit, and even from attending the service of the Church, he was yet very unwilling to live and die altogether useless to the world. Several of the last years of his life were therefore employed chiefly in revising, and correcting, and preparing his works for the press. They are intitled *Dissertations*, because many of them were first written as such, and were never preached, nor intended to be preached. Others were originally sermons, but have received additions and alterations; for things may be said in a dissertation, which cannot with equal propriety be delivered from the pulpit.

'Sensible of the disadvantages which posthumous works usually lie under from the carelessness and mistakes of other editors, he judged it most adviseable for himself to commit his writings to the press, and to make himself alone answerable for them.

'But though for this and other reasons he caused his works to be printed, yet he had no thoughts of publishing them in his lifetime, being more desirous to do good than to be a witness of praise or censure that might attend them. Whatever may be the success, it was his sincere intention in all his discourses, theological, historical, or moral, to benefit and instruct himself and others to press and enforce some moral duties, to explain and illustrate certain passages of scripture, to search into the reasonableness of the divine

divine dispensations from the creation to the consummation of all things, and thereby

—assert eternal providence,
And justify the ways of God to men.

'One of the last things of his writing was his account of his own life. Not that ever he thought his life of such importance and consequence as to deserve an account to be given of it to the public; but as he had opportunities of being privy to some interesting transactions, and possessed several curious and entertaining anecdotes of Lord Bath and others of his friends and acquaintance, he knew no better method of relating and bringing them together than by weaving them into a narrative of his own life, making the one as it were the vehicle of the other, and writing the life principally for the sake of the anecdotes.'

To enter into a detail of the variety of matter contained in ninety dissertations, five charges, and nine sermons, would be both unnecessary, and unsuitable to the design of a work of this kind. To give a general idea of the plan and execution of the whole is all that can reasonably be demanded; and this we shall endeavour to do with candour and impartiality.

The first dissertation is employed in proving the Pentateuch to have been really the work of Moses, in vindicating his claims to inspiration, and to the character of an honest, elegant, and interesting writer. The nine following dissertations contain a history of the bible till the death of Joseph. In all these, diligence, learning, and good sense are evident, but we can discover little either of novelty in argument, or in conjecture. What has been so often said is here again repeated. Surrounded with Greek and Latin figures, we tread the wonted round; and the old beaten track brings us to the end of our journey. Yet, though the learned may not be informed, the common class of readers will be instructed. The remaining dissertations are chiefly on moral subjects, which are treated in such a manner as we hope will render them generally useful. The occasional sermons do no discredit to the author: and the charges, where the state and interests of the church are more professedly treated of, are neither lukewarm, nor over seasoned with fiery and acrimonious zeal. They ~~are~~ the effusions of a mind warmed by the cause it espouses, but, in general, guided by that meekness and moderation so consonant to the spirit of true Christianity, and to the universal practice of its benevolent founder.

The Christian dispensation is more particularly the object of the third volume. The expediency of a written revelation

tion is endeavoured to be proved, and the truth of the New Testament, both as to the facts and doctrines it contains, is vigorously supported. To the general character already given of the publication before us we have nothing to add with regard to this volume. It has the imperfections of the former; yet may, and we trust will be equally useful. Learning, diligence and an animated desire of doing good are apparent through the whole, but that "acer spiritus, ac vis" is wanting, which characterises true genius, and raises a work above mediocrity. Through the whole no attempts seem to have been made at elegance of style; and indeed a certain degree of harshness appears rather to predominate, which will be felt by the public, become perhaps too fastidious on this point.

A few extracts will give the reader some idea of the Bishop's manner, and enable him to judge for himself. The first 15 verses of the 18th chapter of Genesis, which contain the history of Abraham's entertaining the three angels, and the promise of Isaac are thus illustrated.

' Soon after these occurrences the Lord appeared again unto Abraham, (Gen. XVIII.) and it was in this manner. He still continued to dwell at Mamre, and as he was sitting at his tent-door, in the heat of the day, he saw three men approaching toward him, and taking them to be travellers he advanced to meet them, made his obeisance to them, and addressing himself to him who seemed to be the principal of them invited them to refresh and rest themselves a little, and to partake of such a repast as the time would allow him to prepare for them, since they were come thither. They consented, and he hastened into the tent unto Sarah, ordered her to make ready quickly some cakes of fine meal, ran himself into the herd, and fetched from thence a calf tender and good, which he gave unto a young man to dress with all possible speed, and having butter and milk for the sauce he set it before his guests, and stood under the tree waiting upon them while they partook of it. They inquired where Sarah his wife was, and he who seemed to be the chief of them assured him, that according to the time of life she should bear him a son, Sarah, who stood behind him in the tent-door and heard him, laughed within herself; and he to show his knowledge of futurity by his knowledge of the thoughts of her heart asked Abraham, ' Wherefore did Sarah laugh? Is any thing too hard for the Lord?' She denied that she had laughed, for she was afraid; but he affirmed that she did laugh, which certainly was not a right sensation, but it was worse to deny it. Isaac therefore was doubly intitled to the name of "Isaac" derived from the "laughter" of both his parents.'

It is with pleasure that we give the following extract from the concluding dissertation "on the final state and condition of men," as it evinces that religion is every day put-
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ting on a milder form, and christianity and reason, which ought never to have been foes, are approaching to that cordiality of friendship, which every good man has so long anxiously desired. The worthy prelate, amidst many arguments drawn from authorities both ancient and modern, from reason and from the scriptures, that the punishment for crimes committed here is not eternal, but that there is room for repentance even beyond the grave, employs the following mode of reasoning; which we have selected, not as the most forcible topic the Bishop has employed, but for the shortness of the extract; the nature of our publication confining us within narrow bounds.

* But that which weigheth most in this case, is the consideration of the divine attributes and perfections. Such a being as God cannot be supposed to have produced any intelligent natures, for any other end or with any other design, than to constitute them all in their different degrees and proportions partakers of his goodness and happiness. It could never be his original intention to make any of his creatures, and much less the greater part of mankind as you suppose, for ever miserable. "He would have all men to be saved;" and whence then ariseth the obstruction to his good will and pleasure, or how cometh it to pass that his gracious purposes are ever defeated? Was it for want of wisdom or power to fit and make them able, or was there any defect of mercy and goodness to dispose and make them willing, to acquire everlasting life? No, you will say justly, the fault is entirely in the creatures, and not at all in the creator. (Eccles. VII. 29.) "God hath made man upright, but they have sought out many inventions." He made them capable of happiness, but they themselves are the authors of their own misery. But (Acts XV. 18.) "known unto God are all his works from the beginning of the world." He foresees the most distant and contingent actions of all his creatures. He foreknows what courses they will take, their beginning, their progress, their end: And nothing can be more contrariant to the divine nature and attributes, than for a God all-wise all-powerful all-good all-perfect to bestow existence on any beings, whose destiny, he foresees and foreknows, must terminate in wretchedness and misery, without recovery or remedy, without respite or end. He certainly would either have created them of a different model and constitution, or not have created them at all. "God is love;" and he would rather not have given life, than render that life a torment and curse to all eternity. Man indeed must have been made a free and rational moral agent, or otherwise he could not have been capable of good or evil, of reward or punishment; and it is as just and reasonable and fitting that he should be punished for his evil actions, as that he should be rewarded for his good ones. But God never inflicts punishment merely for punishment's sake. In the midst of judgment he remembers mercy. His chastisements, like those of a loving father, are designed not to harden men in sin, but to recover them to goodness, to correct and

meliorate their nature, to terrify, to compel, to persuade, to oblige, and at length to bring them to repentance and reformation. His goodness could never give birth to any one being, and much less to a number of beings, whose end, he foresaw and could not but foresee, would be irretrievable misery; nor could even his justice for short-lived transgressions inflict everlasting punishments. Imagine a creature, nay imagine numberless creatures, produced out of nothing and therefore guilty of no prior offence, sent into this world of frailty, which it is well known before hand they will so use as to abuse it, and then for the excesses of a few years delivered over to torments of endless ages, without the least hope or possibility of relaxation or redemption. Imagine it you may, but you can never seriously believe it, nor reconcile it to God and goodness. The thought is shocking even to human nature, and how much more abhorrent then must it be from the divine perfections! God must have made all his creatures finally to be happy; he could never make any, whose end he foreknew would be misery everlasting.

We shall take our leave of this publication with some account of the life of the author. In the life there will be found a good deal to satisfy that avidity for biographical anecdotes which prevails so generally at present, as the Bishop has interwoven in his narration something relative to most of the noted characters of the times in which he lived. To the political transactions, and domestic history of the Earl of Bath a considerable portion of the life is devoted. The intimacy which subsisted between the Bishop and the statesman may, by some readers, be thought to have given a colouring to his principal figure, Mr. Pulteney, not perfectly suited to the light in which they view him. Plainness and simplicity are preserved throughout the narrative; but, as it is difficult in life to say and do common things at once with propriety and elegance, so it is equally difficult to relate them. We are always in danger of rising too high, or of falling too low, of getting above the ease of nature, or of sinking into colloquial vulgarism. The following expressions, and some others which might be pointed out, if we mistake not, approach the latter extreme. "Clever women, a very pretty gentleman, partly engaged, partly brought up," &c.

Without entering into a more minute analysis of the life, we shall leave the reader to determine on the entertainment he has to expect by presenting him with a few extracts, unaccompanied with any comment.

Before Mr. Newton had the honour of being known at all to Mr. Pulteney, he had the highest veneration for his character, and remembered his being with his friend and school-fellow, the first Lord Chetwynd, at Ingestree in Staffordshire, where he lay a long time most dangerously ill of a violent pleuritic fever; and he could never forget the consternation all the country were in for his danger,

ger, and the concern and anxiety they expressed for his recovery. That illness cost him about 750 Guineas in physicians, and his cure was effected at last by some small beer. Dr. Hope. Dr. Swynfen, and other physicians from Stafford, Litchfield and Derby were called in, and had about 250 Guineas of the money. Dr. Friend came down post from London with Mrs. Pulteney, and received 300 Guineas for his journey. Dr. Broxholme came from Oxford, and received 200 Guineas. When these physicians, who were his particular friends, arrived, they found the case quite desperate, and gave him entirely over. They said every thing had been done, that could be done. They prescribed some few medicines but without the least effect. He was still alive, and was heard to mutter in a low voice, Small beer, Small beer. They said, Give him small beer or any thing. Accordingly a great silver cup was brought, which contained two quarts of small beer. They ordered an orange to be squeezed into it, and gave it to him. He drank the whole at a draught, and called for another. Another was given him, and soon after drinking that, he fell into a most profound sleep and a most profuse sweat for near twenty-four hours. In him the saying was verified, *If he sleep, he shall do well*. From that time he recovered marvelously, inasmuch that in a very few days, the physicians took their leave, saying that now he had no want of any thing, but of a horse for his doctor, and of an ass for his apothecary. The joy for his recovery was diffused all over the country, for he was then in the height of his popularity. How unworthily he came to be deprived of it, will appear in the sequel.

For several of the last years of his life the Bishop's health would not suffer him to attend the House of Lords. At the best he never was a constant attender, but only when some debates of consequence were expected; and he always regarded Lord Mansfield as the best and ablest speaker that ever he had heard in Parliament. Lord Chatham was indeed a great genius, and possessed extraordinary powers, quick conceptions, ready elocution, great command of language, a melodious voice, a piercing eye, a speaking countenance, an authoritative air and manner, and was as great an actor as an orator. What was said of the famous orator Pericles, that he lightened and thundered and confounded Greece, was in some measure applicable to him; and during the time of his successful administration he had the most absolute and uncontrolled sway that perhaps any Member ever had in the House of Commons. With all these excellencies he was not without his defects. His language was sometimes too figurative and pompous, his speeches were seldom well connected, often desultory and rambling from one thing to another, so that though you were struck here and there with noble sentiments and happy expressions, yet you could not well remember nor give a clear account of the whole together. With affected modesty he was apt to be rather too confident and overbearing in debate, sometimes descended to personal invectives, and would first commend that he might afterwards more effectually abuse, would ever have the last word, and right or wrong still preserved (in his own phrase) an *unembarrassed countenance*. He spoke more to your passions than to your reason, more to those below the bar and

and above the throne than to the House itself; and when that kind of audience was excluded, he sunk and lost much of his weight and authority. Lord Mansfield was happy in most of the same perfections with few of the same failings and imperfections. His language was more natural and easy, his speeches were more in a continued chain of reasoning, and sometimes with regular divisions, so that you easily accompanied him, and clearly comprehended the whole from the beginning to the end. What he said as well as his manner of saying it was more modest and decent, less presuming and dictatorial; he never descended to personal altercations, disdained to reply even to reflections cast upon himself, and in all things preserved his own dignity and that of the House of Peers. He addressed himself more to your reason than to your passions; he never courted popular applause so much as the approbation of the wise and good; he did not wish to take you by storm or surprise, but sought to prevail only by the force of truth and argument; he had almost an immediate intuition into the merits of every cause or question that came before him, and comprehending it clearly himself could readily explain it to others; persuasion flowed from his lips, conviction was wrought in all unprejudiced minds, and for many years the House of Lords payed greater deference to his authority than to that of any man living.

ART. VIII. *The Revolution of America.* By the Abbé Raynal.
Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Sewed. L. Davis.

THE translator of this little piece informs us that in the course of his travels he happily succeeded in obtaining a copy of it, before it had made its appearance from any press. He makes many professions of his own patriotism, and exhibits high encomiums on the Author. The manner in which this traveller procured the manuscript, or a copy of the manuscript which he has translated, is supposed by some, to have been inconsistent with the laws of honour and justice. In whatever manner however, this small performance has made its way to the public eye, it bears the strongest internal marks of authenticity. It would be difficult to fabricate so imposing an imitation of philanthropy, genius, eloquence, and the most various and extensive knowledge.

The Abbé sets out with a description of the state of England in 1763. The splendour of her extended territory was dearly purchased by a load of debt, which overwhelmed her with distress. In this situation an idea was formed of calling the Colonies to the aid of the Mother Country. This view, says the Abbé, was wise and just. The members of every political confederacy ought all, in proportion to the extent of their powers, to contribute to its defence and to its

its splendour. But the pride of power and the rapacity of government, forgetful that all authority is founded on opinion, and that the power of those who govern, is but the power of those who are governed, rouse oppressed subjects into acts of resistance and rebellion.

'The first duty, therefore,' says the Abbé Raynal, 'of a wise administration, is to manage the prevailing opinions in any country: for opinion is the property most dear to man, dearer even than his life, and consequently much dearer than his wealth. A wise administration may, without doubt, endeavour to rectify opinions by information, or to alter them by persuasion, if they tend to the diminution of the public power. But it is not permitted to thwart them without necessity; and there never was any necessity for rejecting the system adopted by North America.'

'In effect, whether the different settlements in this new world had been authorised, as they wished, to send representatives to parliament, where they might have deliberated with their fellow-citizens on the necessities of the British empire at large; or, whether they had continued to examine within themselves, what should be the contribution which it was right for them to make, no inconvenience could have resulted from it to the treasury. In one case the voice of their delegated claimants would have been drowned in that of the majority; and these provinces would have found themselves legally loaded with such a portion of the burden as it should be wished to make them bear. In the other, the ministry, continuing to dispose of the dignities, the employments, the pensions, and even of the elections, would have experienced no more resistance to its will in that hemisphere than in this.'

The maxims consecrated by custom in America, the Abbé goes on, were not founded in prejudice alone. The ideas of liberty that governed the Americans rested on the nature of their charters, and the solid basis of the rights of every English subject. The very soil which they inhabit, he farther shews, must produce in them a sentiment favourable to ideas of liberty.

'Dispersed throughout an immense continent; free as the wild nature which surrounds them, amidst their rocks, their mountains, the vast plains of their deserts, on the confines of those forests in which all is still in its savage state, and where there are no traces of either the slavery or the tyranny of man, they seem to receive from every natural object a lesson of liberty and independence. Besides, these people, given up almost all of them to agriculture and to commerce, to useful labours, which elevate and fortify the soul in inspiring simple manners, hitherto as far removed from riches as from poverty, cannot be yet corrupted either by the excess of luxury, or by the excess of want. It is in this state above all others, that the man who enjoys liberty is most capable to maintain it, and to shew himself jealous in the defence of an hereditary right, which seems to be the most certain security for all the rest. Such was the resolution of the Americans.'

England

England determined to exact from her Colonies, what in prudence she ought to have requested, imposed the famous stamp-act. America, indignant at this usurpation, renounced the consumption of whatever was furnished by the Mother-country, till it should have withdrawn this oppressive bill. This conspiracy, with the clamours of the Merchants whose goods were without vent, confounded the government. The stamp-act was repealed. But a new tax was imposed on tea and other articles carried to America from England. The people of the northern continent did not less revolt at this innovation than the former. They insisted upon a general and formal renunciation of what had been so illegally ordained: and this satisfaction they obtained. Tea only was excepted. But this duty was not more cogently exacted than the others had been, until positive orders were given for collecting it. At this news the indignation in North America became general. In the tumults that ensued Boston took the lead; and its port was shut up by act of parliament. This measure was adopted in order to divide the Americans by motives of interest and the love of gain. But that people newly-established, occupied in useful labours, and uncorrupted by vice, remained united, determined to maintain their rights with constancy and concord. A combination was formed among the Colonies; and they sent deputies to Philadelphia, charged with the defence of their rights and interests. And now it was no longer a few individuals who made an obstinate resistance to imperious masters. It was the struggle of one body of men against another; of the Congress of America against the Parliament of England: of a nation against a nation. All hope of reconciliation vanished. Great Britain sent troops to the new world. America prepared for defence. General Gage dispatched a body of troops from Bolton, for the purpose of destroying a magazine of arms, and the encounter at Lexington was the first scene of the civil war in America.

The Abbé having deduced the origin of this war, observes that the principles which justified it were indebted for their birth to Europe, particularly to England, and had been transplanted into America by philosophy. These principles he displays in an eloquent dissertation on the nature and origin of civil society and government, and the folly and injustice of rousing the jealousy and resistance of America. The Author then describes the part, which, in his opinion, England should have taken when she saw the fermentation of her Colonies: the great principle of which should

should have been, a desire to restore and perpetuate an union between Great Britain and her Colonies by the bonds of benevolence and mutual interest.

The Abbé, returning from a long digression, in which he paints the different sentiments respecting America which prevailed in the British Parliament, describes in a summary manner the events of the war from the declaration of American independence, to the accession of the Catholic King to the confederacy against England. Having described the strength of this confederacy, and also that force which England had to oppose to it, he thus proceeds :

‘ Who shall decide then, who can foresee the event ? France and Spain united have powerful means to employ ; England, the art of employing her’s. France and Spain have their treasures ; England, a great national credit. On one side, the multitude of men ; on the other, the superiority in the art of working ships, and, as it were, of subjecting the sea in fighting. Here, impetuosity and valour ; there, valour and experience. In one party, the activity which absolute monarchy gives to designs ; in the other, the vigour and elasticity which liberty supplies. There, losses and grudges to revenge ; here, their late glory, with the sovereignty of America, and of the ocean, to recover and preserve. The allied nations have the advantage with which the union of two vast powers must be attended ; but the inconvenience likewise which must result from this very union, by the difficulty of harmony and concord both in their designs, and in the execution of them by their respective forces ; England is abandoned to herself, but having only her own forces to direct, she has the advantage of unity in designs, and of a more sure and perhaps more ready disposition in ideas : she can more easily range her plans of defence and offence under a single view.

‘ In order to weigh the matter with exactness, we should yet put into the scales the different energy which may be communicated to the rival nations by a war, which is in a great many respects but a war of kings and ministers, on one side ; but, on the other, a truly national war, in which the greatest interests of England are concerned ; that of a commerce which produces her riches, that of an empire and a glory on which her greatness rests.

‘ In short, if we consider the spirit of the French nation, opposite to that with which it is at variance, we shall see that the ardour of the Frenchman is as quickly extinguished as it is inflamed ; that he hopes every thing when he begins, that he despairs of every thing as soon as an obstacle shall retard him ; that, from his character, his arm must be nerved by the enthusiasm of success, in order to reap more success : that an Englishman, on the contrary, less presumptuous, notwithstanding his natural boldness, at the beginning, knows how, when occasions calls for it, to struggle courageously, to raise himself in proportion as the danger rises, and to gather advantages even from disgrace : like the robust oak, to which Horace compares the Romans, which, mutilated by the axe, springs afresh

afresh under the strokes which are given it, and draws vigour and spirit from its very losses and its very wounds.'

The Author next considers what system of politics the House of Bourbon, if victorious, ought to follow with regard to America: and he concludes that the part which the Courts of Madrid and Versailles should take, if they are free to chuse, is to let two powers subsist in North America, who may watch, restrain, and counterpoize each other. This also, as he maintains, would be the real interest of America. He considers what estimate we ought to make of the Colonies; when they shall have been established in independence: and this, in his judgment should be exceedingly low, in respect both of riches and population. He winds up the whole of this performance with many salutary advices to the North American Colonists.

In this publication, the same turn for pleasing and interesting digression; the same fire of imagination, and boldness of conjecture; the same rapidity of narration and frequency of reflection, appear, which characterize the Abbé Raynal's other writings. But the scenes he describes are so recent, that it is probable he has not penetrated into all the springs that contributed to give them motion. And his predictions with regard to futurity are still more uncertain.

ART. IX. *A Letter addressed to the Abbe Raynal on the Affairs of North America.* In which the Mistakes in the Abbé's Account of the Revolution of America are corrected and cleared up. By Thomas Paine, M. A. of the University of Pennsylvania, and Author of a Tract, entitled, "Common Sense." 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

MR. Paine had been informed that the piece entitled "The Revolution of America by THE ABBÉ RAYNAL," was unfairly procured from the Printer whom the Abbé employed, or transcribed from his manuscript copy, and that it was only a part of a larger work, in the press, or preparing for it. These circumstances he considers as an apology for some declarations and sentiments contained in the Abbé's work, which he cannot approve, and which he did not expect to find. "These, he says, the Abbé, on a revival of his work, might have seen occasion to change, had not the anticipated piracy of the English Translator precluded all opportunity of doing so, and precipitated the ingenious Author into difficulties, which otherwise might not have happened."

Mr. Paine, after bestowing very high encomiums on the Abbé Raynal, charges him with having, in the course of his

his work, "in some instances, extolled without a reason, and wounded without a cause: with having given fame where it was not deserved, and withheld it where it was justly due: and with being so frequently in and out of temper with his subjects and parties, that few or none of them are decisively and uniformly marked." The principal articles that Mr. Paine insists on in support of this general charge, are the following: The Abbé, he endeavours to prove, is wrong even in the foundation of his work, having misconceived, and mistated the causes which produced the rupture between England and her *then* Colonies. On this subject Mr. Paine is positive, that it was the fixed determination of the British Cabinet to quarrel with America at all events. "His facts, he alledges, are coldly and carelessly stated, and he hastens through his narrations, as if he were glad to get from them, that he may enter into the more copious field of eloquence and imagination." The Abbé has mistated the account of the debt and paper money of America. The Abbé has made a false arrangement of facts, whence he falls into very material errors: one of which, and a very capital one, is, that the treaty of friendship and commerce between France and America, was the circumstance which determined the latter to reject the propositions for reconciliation, proffered by the British Ministry. At the time of this rejection, the Author of the pamphlet contends, America knew nothing of the above treaty. Here he speaks positively, and by authority, having then been Secretary in the Foreign Department of Congress.

As the Author differs from the Abbé with regard to facts; so he controverts some of his sentiments or opinions. He particularly contends, in opposition to the Abbé, "that the alliance between France and America was dictated *partly* by a regard to the happiness of MANKIND." He censures the Abbé's high encomiums on the British Ministry, on their rejecting the offered mediation of the Court of Madrid.. He then observes, that the Abbé Raynal had borrowed largely from his pamphlet intitled *Common Sense*, and takes a concise view of the state of public affairs from the time in which that performance was published. The following extract from this part of his work, appears, at the present period, particularly interesting.

'Repeated experience has shewn, not only the impracticability of conquering America, but the still higher impossibility of conquering her mind, or recalling her back to her former condition of thinking. Since the commencement of the war, which is now approaching to eight years, thousands and tens of thousands have advanced, and are daily advancing into the first stage of manhood, who know nothing of Britain but as a barbarous enemy, and to whom

whom the independence of America appears as much the natural and established government of the country, as that of England does to an Englishman. And on the other hand, thousands of the aged, who had British ideas, have dropped, and are daily dropping, from the stage of business and life. The natural progress of generation and decay operates every hour to the disadvantage of Britain. Time and death, hard enemies to contend with, fight constantly against her interest; and the bills of mortality, in every part of America, are the thermometers of her decline. The children in the streets are from their cradle bred to consider her as their only foe. They hear of her cruelties; of their fathers, uncles, and kindred killed; they see the remains of burnt and destroyed houses, and the common tradition of the school they go to, tells them, *those things were done by the British.*

These are circumstances which the mere English state politician, who considers man only in a state of manhood, does not attend to. He gets entangled with parties coeval or equal with himself at home, and thinks not how fast the rising generation in America is growing beyond his knowledge of them, or they of him. In a few years all personal remembrance will be lost, and who is King or Minister in England, will be little known and scarcely enquired after.

The new British administration is composed of persons who have ever been against the war, and who have constantly reprobated all the violent measures of the former one. They considered the American war as destructive to themselves, and opposed it on that ground. But what are these things to America? She has nothing to do with English parties. The ins and the outs are nothing to her. It is the whole country she is at war with, or must be at peace with.

Were every Minister in England a *Chatham*, it would now weigh little or nothing in the scale of American politics. Death has preserved to the memory of this statesman, *that fame*, which he, by living, would have lost. His plans and opinions, towards the latter part of his life, would have been attended with as many evil consequences, and as much reprobated here, as those of Lord North; and, considering him a wise man, they abound with inconsistencies amounting to absurdities.

It has apparently been the fault of many in the late minority, to suppose, that America would agree to certain terms with them, were they in place, which she would not even listen to from the then administration. This idea can answer no other purpose than to prolong the war; and Britain may, at the expence of many more millions, learn the fatality of such mistakes. If the new ministry wisely avoid this hopeless policy, they will prove themselves better pilots, and wiser men, than they are conceived to be; for it is every day expected to see their bark strike upon some hidden rock and go to pieces.

With regard to the matters in dispute between Mr. Paine and the Abbé Raynal, we shall only observe that however the former may be better informed than the latter, with regard to dates, circumstances, and particular charac-

ters in America; the Abbé seems to have taken a juster, and more impartial view of the grand principles, and dispositions, and views which have actuated Great Britain and her Colonies in that contest which now draws towards a conclusion. Mr. Paine's writings are ingenious, and profound, and breathe that bold and manly eloquence, which a struggle for liberty, and new and animating situations, inspire, more than the finest models of antiquity, or all the rules of the schools. But he speaks of Britain with the highest degree of prejudice and acrimony; while he magnifies the virtues of his countrymen, with a passionateness of expression, that bespeaks the partizan rather than the philosopher.

ART. X. *Specimen of a History of Oxfordshire.* The Second Edition. Corrected and enlarged. 4to. 2s. 6d. Sewed. J. Nichols.

TWENTY copies of this work were printed last winter for private use. But these having been circulated more extensively than the Author intended, the approbation he received from his friends encouraged him to prepare the present impression for the service of the public. The Author is the celebrated Mr. Warton, so well known as a critic and a poet.

The prejudices entertained against provincial histories begin to disappear; and it is to be hoped, that ingenious men possessed of opportunities and leisure, will at length be invited to exercise their talents upon a province, which they may render instructive and interesting in the greatest degree. It is in vain to conceive that the histories of counties must necessarily be dull and uninteresting. Books of this kind have hitherto, indeed, been trifling and inadequate. For they have exhibited too often the registers of parishes, the pedantries of heraldry, and the lying flatteries of epitaphs which vainly attempted to give immortality to rich and obscure men. But there is an infancy in every kind of study; and it is now fit that such humble collectors should give place to intelligent enquirers, who will survey towns and countries with a view to human industry and art; who will be solicitous to paint the manners of remote periods, to explain the source and utility of obsolete laws, and to open up whatever has a relation to ancient property, customs, and modes of life.

With regard to the Author whose production is now before us, it is by no means his object to compile a complete history of Oxfordshire. He has confined himself to a de-

scription of Kiddington, one of its parishes; a choice to which he was determined by his situation. The remains it contains of religious antiquity, the modes of agriculture practised in it, the variations of its property, the more eminent families which have flourished there, and the military transactions which took place in it; these are the principal subjects which he examines.

In the execution of this task the Author gives ample proofs of patience and fidelity; and he is every where perspicuous and minute. But we cannot allow that he has infused into his performance any spirit of philosophy, or introduced any curious or striking illustrations of ancient manners. He had yet frequent opportunities for displays of an instructive ingenuity. As this censure is general, and applied to an Author of high reputation, it is proper to exemplify it.

He gives the following extract from Domesday book, which was compiled about the year 1090.

“OXENEFSCHIRE.

“Terra Uxoris Rogeri de Iveri. Uxor Rogerii de Iveri tenet de Rege, &c. Idem* tenet v hidas in CHIDINTONE†, et Maino
“de

* Should not this *Idem* be *Eadem*, and afterwards *Ea* for *Eo*? Unless we suppose Roger to be now alive: in which case, *Idem* will refer to *Rogeri de Iveri*, and the estate will be his, not his widow's.

† From this Norman pronuntiation of Cudington, probably came that which now prevails, of *Kiddington*. So, in DOMESDAY, Cudlington (now Kidlington) in this county, the Norman inquisitors and their scribes pronounced and wrote *Chekelintone*. They softened all the old Saxon appellations, as (in this county) *Rouesham* for Rousham, *Misseberie* for Mixbury, *Ricestone* for Blechingdon, *Hamsitone* for Henfington, *Esefelde* for Ellsfield, &c. Other places they totally misrepresented, with the carelessness or affectation of a modern Frenchman, as *Cheneffelde* for Clanfield, *Chene tone* for Kencot, *Cerefdune* for Garlington, &c. Hence it has happened, that we cannot always appeal with certainty to this ancient and venerable record, which would otherwise have possessed the highest authority, and would have afforded informations, now never to be obtained.

It is, however, remarkable that *Ecclesia* is often written *acclesia*, with the Saxon *æ*. Hence, among other reasons, we are led to suspect, that the several rotuli were made out on the spot by Saxon scribes, and that afterwards the Norman scribes, in digesting DOMESDAY-BOOK, from those rotuli, wrote the names of places partly in contempt, according to their own articulation. An ancient transcript of some of these original rotuli, as it seems, is preserved in Exeter cathedral, affording other proofs of this.

“ de Ho. Terra vj carucarum, nunc in dominio ij carucatæ, et
 “ iij servi, et vij villani, cum x bordariis habentibus ij carucas
 “ et dimidium. Ibi molendinum ‡ v solidorum, et xij acæ prati.
 “ Silva i leuca longitudine, et iij quarentinis latitudine. Valuit iij
 “ libras modo iij libras. Godric libere tenuit has ij terras. Silva
 “ i leuca longitudine et dimidium leucæ latitudine. Valuit viij li-
 “ bras T. R. E. [tempore Regis Edwardi] cum recepti viij. Mo-
 “ do x libr. Godric et Aluuin libere tenuerunt.” Lib. DOMES-
 DAY. f. 160. 55.

In the margin we have placed the observations of the Au-
 thor upon this quotation from Domesday Book ; and they
 are certainly acute and ingenious. But surely upon this
 text he might have been employed to much greater ad-
 vantage, and might have gathered from it far better topics
 of illustration. From the consideration of the land held of
 the King by the wife of Roger de Iveri, he might have en-
 quired into the connection which women might possess with
 a landed property in the times of Domesday Book, or in
 the age of William the Norman. From the mention of
 hides and carucates of land, he might have distinguished
 between these, and have pointed out with precision the
 quantity of territory they denote. From the mention of
 slaves, villeins, and cottagers, he might have explained
 these orders of men, and entered into many curious parti-
 culars with regard to the meaner conditions of society in
 antient times. From the mention of *molendinum*, he might
 have unfolded the origin of that feudal custom which confer-
 red exclusively on particular persons, the privilege of build-
 ing a mill. From the specification of the value of estates in
 the times of Edward the Confessor, and the æra of Domes-
 day Book, he might naturally enough have made some per-
 tinent remarks concerning money and coinage in those dis-

“ I take this opportunity of observing, that as Kiddington was
 antiently written *Cudenton*, so Kidlington, just mentioned, was writ-
 ten *Cudelinton*. Among other proofs, I find the following in a very
 antient grant to Osenev abbey. “ Ad sustentacionem unius lampæ
 “ dis coram crucifixo in ecclesia de Cudelinton, pro animabus
 “ Henrici de Oyly et antecessorum et successorum meorum.” RE-
 GIST. k. Abb. OSENEY. MS. f. 77. The Register, reciting this
 grant, was compiled by abbot William de Sutton, about the year
 1290.

‡ Perhaps the same that remained till within these few years.
 Mills are of high antiquity, and for an obvious reason. In Domes-
 day-book, wherever a mill is specified, we generally find it still sub-
 sisting. Mills antiently belonged to lords of manours. The te-
 nants were permitted to grind only at the lord's mill ; nor could
 they erect a mill without a special indulgence of the lord.

tant periods. In fine, from the clause ‘Godric and Aluwin *libere tenuerunt*,’ he might have entered into the nature of the *tenure* alluded to. For the tenure is by no means obvious; and some antiquaries may find reasons to make it refer to an *allodial* property, and others to a *feudal* one.

These observations, we imagine, will sufficiently illustrate our criticism. It is now proper that we lay before our Readers an extract from this publication.

‘Kiddington, or Cuddington, antiently and properly according to its British etymology written Cudenton or THE TOWN AMONG THE WOODS, is a small village pleasantly situated on the river Glym, twelve miles from the city of Oxford to the north-west, four from Woodstock, and seven from Cheping-Norton, market towns in this county*. It is divided by the river Glym into the
Upper

* In the British, CUD, or CWD, or GWYD, is *Wood*. In the same language, the final syllable EN is sometimes redundant, yet with the power of a genitive Case; and is often introduced as connective in compounds. Thus OUSENEY, that is Oseney or Osney, near Oxford, the eyot, insulet, the watery meadow or meadows, *of* or *in* the river Ouse, Use, or Ise, is to be resolved into OUS-EN-EY. Whence OUSENEFYORD, now Oxford, the Ford *of* or *at* or *near* Ouseney, or the meadows of Ouse. This city is written ORSNAFORDA or OKSNAFORDA, on a coin of Alfred published by Fountayne. See Wise, NUMM. BODL. p. 232. OXNAFORD, and OXENEFORD, frequently in the SAXON CHRONICLE. OXNEFORD on pennies of the two Williams. See Snelling’s SILV. CORN., pp. 3. 11. OUSEN, OUSEN, or OSEN, were quickly reduced or corrupted into ORSN, OXSN, or OKN. Those who make OXFORD to be VADUM BOUM, plausibly contend, that it was never called OUSEFORD. But they should remember, that it was first called OXENFORD before OXFORD. And even this would countenance an hypothesis, to the utter exclusion of the other, that OXENFORD might be derived from OUSENFORD. But that OUSENEYSFORD is its primitive radix, appears from hence; that in the earliest spellings of this place, we constantly find the letter *e*, or *a*, after *n*, in the second syllable. A presumptive proof by the way, that *Oxen* have no concern in the etymology. In Domesday-book, we have OXNEF’SCEYRE; and OXENEFORD perpetually in charters for two hundred years below. At length, the original meaning being forgot and obliterated, OXENEFORD, whence OXENFORD, or OXFORD, presented an obvious and familiar signification, which the pedantry of our ancestors latinised into VADUM BOUM. For the great source of corruption in etymologies of names, both of places and men, consists in the natural propensity to substitute in the place of one difficult and obscure, a more common and notorious appellation, suggested and authorised by affinity of sound. It is artfully said, that the Britons called Oxford RHYD-YCHEN, that is, the *Ford of Ours*. But these Britons are the modern Welsh. The truth is,
RHYD-YCHEN

Upper and Lower Town, or Over-Kiddington and Nether-Kiddington: the first is in the Hundred of Chadlington, the second in that of Wootton. Both parts contain not more than forty houses.

The Church, situated in Lower-Kiddington, is said by Browne Willis, not always successful in his laborious investigations of patron saints, to be dedicated to Saint Nicholas*: but the annual Wake is celebrated on the Sunday following the festival of Saint Peter. It consists of one pace, or aisle, ten yards broad, and with the Chancel, thirty yards long. But there is a proportionable lateral projection, or southern semitranssept, before we enter the chancel; and an opposite one was perhaps intended on the north-side, which would have given the church the complete form of a cross. It is not, however, quite improbable, that this was designed only for a sepulchral aisle to cover a family-vault. Within its southern wall are two niches for Holy Water: we may therefore suppose that there was once an altar, perhaps two, in the semitranssept. The whole fabric is cycled with rafter work. In the south-window of the semitranssept, which has been altered unsuitably from its original Gothic shape, these arms were to be seen in ancient painted glass about the year 1670.

I. Or, 3 Cheverons gules, within a Bordure engrailed.

II. Argent, 3 Bars blue, over, a Lyon rampant Gules, crowned Or.

III. Argent, 3 Lyons passant Argent †, a File of 3 Labels Gules.

* Anthony Wood, who saw these arms in his curious parochial Perambulation of Oxfordshire, yet unpublished, calls this southern

RHYD-YCHEN originated with Geoffrey of Monmouth, a fantastic historian of the twelfth century. See HIST. BRIT. ix. 12. x. 4. It would be ludicrous to refute the absurdity of the idea, that the FORD was restricted to OXEN only.

There are other places in England, now called OXENFORD, and with the same etymology. For OUSE was a general name for river, or water. One of these, near Godalming in Surrey, formerly belonging to Waverley-abbey, is written OXENEFORD, in an instrument dated 1147. Dugd. MON. ii. 913. a. In a charter of king Athelstan to Wilton-abbey in Wiltshire, dated 937, a ford over the water is mentioned, and written OXNAFORD. CARTUL. ABBAT. DE WILTON. In the possession of lord Pembroke. "lang streamer of Oxnaforde. þonne þær open on ane lake." That is, "By the river to the FORD (commonly called OXEN-FORD). Then beyond the FORD to the lake." fol. 60. b.

* Willis, CATHEDR. Oxford. p. 473. It was by the interest of the Dominicans, that so many churches were dedicated to Saint Nicholas. He was their favourite tutelary saint.

The magnificent church of their monastery at Oxford was dedicated to Saint Nicholas, in 1262. Wood, HIST. ANTIQUIT. Univ. Oxon. i. 65.

† So Wood. Perhaps, Gardant.*

wing, a Chapel†. In which, perhaps, a domestic priest, or chaplain residing with the family of the capital mansion before the Reformation, was occupied in singing daily mass for the souls of those interred in the vault. I find it transmitted to the present family as an appropriated chapel or chantry. It has an original doorway to the south, now walled up, which by its situation at one end of that side of the building, seems intended for an entrance to a descent into the vault abovementioned.

‘ The Body of the Church seems to have been built about the year 1400. The semitranssept, or chapel, soon after.

‘ The Chancel is evidently the remainder of an older original church, in the style of the Saxon or rather Norman architecture: and at the back of the present altar a large Norman arch is walled up, which seems to have opened eastward into a more extended edifice, perhaps into the Chancel of the old Church. The zigzagged semicircle of this arch, and its jambs, remain entire; and visibly projecting from the wall with which they are now incorporated, form an inclosure to the altar. Over the Altar is a Picture of the Crucifixion. On the outside of what is now the chancel, under the roofing, on either side, is a series of rude grotesque ornaments in stone, resembling heads placed horizontally. They exhibit marks of the architecture or rather sculpture of a very remote era. The Chancel is built of rag-stone: the Body of a more polished free-stone. The new work of the Body is terminated eastward by a lofty pointed arch, leading into the chancel: the chancel is higher than any part of the rest of the building. I suppose the old Church, of which the present chancel is the remainder, to have been built by the family of De Sauceie, or Salcey, about the reign of king Stephen, at least before the year 1200. The old Norman-built parochial churches seldom consisted of more than one aisle or pace: as the church of Eifly in this county, erected by a bishop of Lincoln in the twelfth century‡.

‘ The Font remaining in its old situation near the chief entrance, is large, and well ornamented; and was probably constructed at the time of the present church, with some of whose windows the Gothic mouldings on the faces of its octagonal panes uniformly correspond. It may be remarked in general, that fonts originally intended for the total immersion of the infant, are ancient in proportion as they are capacious*.

The

‘ † Wood, MSS. Mus. Ashmol. E. 1. 4to. f. 146. a. Manu sua.

‘ ‡ The most curious one with aisles, that I recollect, I mean as complete in its first plan, although small, is the church of Steyning in Sussex. The middle aisle has on each side four Norman round arches zigzagged, surmounted with as many round-headed small windows. The two side-aisles are much and disproportionably lower, as was the custom. The roof is of rafter, Stone-vaulting being either not known or not common in the Norman system. A lofty Norman arch leads into the Chancel. Only the Tower is additional.

‘ * Of the total immersion the inconveniencies must have been many,

* The Seating of the body of the church is probably the same that was there before the Reformation ; consisting, as was antiently the fashion, of a regular arrangement of plain benches, low and open, without distinction, and on one plan, running at right angles from either side. Moveable stools were sometimes used. Pews, according to the modern use and idea, which destroy the beauty of our parochial churches, were not known till long after the Reformation*. They would have obstructed processions, and other ceremonies, of the Romish religion.

* This

many. It is recorded of King Etheldred, that at his baptism, in 967, he defiled the font. W. Wykeleser, METRA DE REGIS. ANGLIÆ. Apud LIB. Nig. SCACC. p. 530. edit. Hearn, 1728.

Sacra statim natus Etheldredus violavit,

Nam baptizatus, BAPTISTERIUM maculavit.

On this ominous occasion, archbishop Dunstan, who baptised the royal babe, with an oath exclaimed, " Per deum, et matrum ejus, IGNAVUS Homo erit !" See HOLLINSH. CRON. i. 165. col. i. 20.

* Stowe says, that about the year 1520, half of the church of Saint Andrew Underhaft was rebuilt by Stephen Gennings Mayor of London, " and the PEWES in the south chapell made of his costs, as appeareth in euery window, and upon the said PEWES." SURV. LOND. p. 109. edit. 1599. 4to. That is, he furnished the south chapel with a set of uniform benches, or *subsellia*, for the general use of the parishioners. Before the Reformation benefactions were often bequeathed for seating a church in this manner. Blomfield cites legacies about the year 1502, for *stolyn* various parts of the church of Swaffham in Norfolk, the choir being fitted up with Stalls. HIST. NORF. iii. 511. seq. That is for *stooling*, or *benching*, various parts of the church. Particularly, for making " all the gret *stolys* of both sydes of the myd aley." p. 512. Lord Bacon somewhere says, that sir Thomas Moore, when at mass sat in the *chancel*, and his lady in a *pew*. He means, that she sat in one of the common *parish-seats*, without, and in the nave. Weever, who lived in the reigns of Elizabeth and James the first, speaking of epitaphs on the pavements of churches in and about London, has the following passage. " Many monuments are couered with " *seates or pews*, made high and easie for parishioners to sit or " *sleepe in*, a fashion of no long continuance, and worthy of re- " *formation*." FUN. MON. p. 701. edit. 1631.

* The Patron was always indulged with a stall and desk in the chancel or choir, just within the screen. The most antient notice of this distinction that I can at present recollect, occurs in some Injunctions directed by the learned bishop Groshead to his diocese of Lincoln, about the year 1240. " Ad hæc adjicimus, ne Laici " *stent vel sedeant inter clericos in CANCELLO, dum divina ibidem* " *celebrantur : nisi forte, ob reverentiam vel aliam rationabilem* " *causam, hoc solis PATRONIS permittatur.*" BROWNE'S APPEND. ad FASCICUL. RER. EXPETEND. ET FUGIEND. vol. ii. p. 413.

' This church, in common with most other parish-churches, retains marks of the sordid devotion of its possessors under the dominion of Cromwell. But many of those disgraces to divine worship which Calvinism had left behind, have been lately removed by a generous benefactor, with the addition of new improvements and ornaments. When a country-church has been BEAUTIFIED, to use the technical phrase on this occasion, it is customary for the grateful topographer, minutely to display the judicious application of some late pious legacy, and to dwell with singular satisfaction on modern decorations of the communion-table, consisting of semicircular groupes of bloated cherubs; tawdry festoons, gingerbread pilasters, flaming urns, and a newly-gilded decalogue, flanked by a magnificent Moses and Aaron in scarlet and purple, the work of some capital artist, who unites the callings of painter, plumber, and glazier, in the next dirty market-town. I do not regret, that the present edifice, which yet has not been without its friends, can boast none of these embellishments.

A few steps of the rood-lost remain : and on the opposite side, is a small arcade or receptacle for Holy Water. There is another on the left in the arch at entering the chancel. These receptacles indicate altars : but not always. In the old Convocation-house adjoining to Saint Mary's church at Oxford, was a place for Holy Water, occasionally consecrated by the chaplain of the University, with which the Masters crossed themselves before they were sworn.'

It remains for us to observe, that this performance with respect to composition, is a model for antiquaries. The style has, indeed, uncommon merit. It is easy, clear, pure, and elegant.

ART. XI. *A Narrative of the late Transactions at Benares.* By Warren Hastings, Esq; Debrett. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed.

ON the first intelligence in India, of the war with France, in July 1778, it was resolved in the supreme council of Bengal, that the Rajah Cheit Sing, Zemindar of Benares, Gazypore, and Chundara, in the Soubah of Illahabad, should be required to contribute an extraordinary subsidy for the expence which this new exigency had imposed on the English government. The sum demanded of the Rajah was five lacks of rupees per annum. Delays, evasions, and artifices, on the part of Cheit Sing, in the payment of this subsidy, joined to many circumstances which seemed to indicate a spirit of independence, and a design to throw off the yoke of the Company's government, determined Mr. Hastings to arrest the person of the Rajah,

London. 1699. fol. Compare SYNOD. EXON. A. D. 1287. Cap. xii. Wilkins's Concil. tom. ii. p. 140.

and to confine him a prisoner in his own palace. The troops that were sent to secure the person of this chief, were repulsed by a multitude of his faithful vassals with great slaughter. The Rajah made his escape in the midst of this tumult and confusion to a fortress which belonged to him, strong both by nature and art, where he prepared to resist the English government. The first encounter was encouraged by success, and the contagion of his example excited a spirit of revolt among neighbouring chiefs, which must have spread throughout the whole of Indostan, and effected a revolution fatal to the authority of Britain in the east, if the timely and vigorous exertions of Mr. Hastings, and the military officers under his command, had not dispelled the rising storm, and asserted the rights, and maintained the power of the East India Company.

But, the enemies of Governor Hastings arraigned his conduct in this matter as oppressive to Cheit Sing, and subversive of the interests of the Company. There was a compact between the Rajah and the Company, which specified, that he was only to pay them a certain annual tribute. Why, then, make such extraordinary demands? And why put the Rajah in arrest, when he professed himself devoted to the supreme council, and offered to make every concession. To vindicate his conduct in the whole of this matter, Governor Hastings wrote the narrative under review, with that elegance of expression, and that ingenious turn of thinking which appear in all his writings.

This narrative is written under the force of an obligation to truth, equivalent to an oath. "I shall study, says Mr. Hastings, to divest my mind of all partial bias, and to deliver all the past transactions and occurrences with the strictest and most faithful regard to truth; in which if I fail, I fail unknowingly; and may the God of truth so judge me, as my own conscience shall condemn or acquit me of intentional deception." Mr. Hastings to the above strong declaration, has added the testimony of several gentlemen in the Company's service, and of some very respectable natives of Hindostan, which tends to prove that the rebellion of Cheit Sing was premeditated, although Mr. Hastings's journey to Benares accelerated his revolt. The Governor General sufficiently evinces to every impartial reader, that his conduct towards the Chief could not have proceeded from any view of private emolument, and that what he did, he did from a zeal for the interest of the company. He seems to have stated facts fairly, and there is an air of candour that runs throughout the whole of the narrative. With regard to the right the Company had to impose

impose such heavy exactions on a native prince of India, to the effect this imposition may have had in driving him into schemes of rebellion, and to other matters, contained in this publication, there will no doubt be a contrariety of opinion. It was natural, and justifiable in Cheit Sing to make every effort to emancipate himself from slavery. In political prudence, though not in morality, it was natural and justifiable in Mr. Hastings to convert the riches of a man whom he suspected of rebellious views, into the means of supporting that government which he aimed to *subvert*.

M O N T H L Y C A T A L O G U E,

For J A N U A R Y, 1783.

POETRY AND MISCELLANIES.

Art. 12. *Sonnets to Eminent Men. And an Ode to the Earl of Effingham.* 1 s. 4to. Murray.

IT is the opinion of a great critic that the fabric of a Sonnet, however adapted to the Italian language, will never succeed in ours, which, having greater variety of termination, requires the rhimes to be often changed. Experience has hitherto confirmed the truth of this observation; even the Sonnets of Milton are little known; many have never heard of them; and few have read them. Under such disadvantages it is certainly difficult to arrive at excellence, and to secure applause. Where the greatest have failed it is arduous to conquer.

In the present case, the author has very prudently deviated, though in a small degree, from the original form; and has thereby removed some of the impediments which flow from the genius of our language. His attempt, in this unpropitious path of the British muse, has been very successful; and will, we doubt not, meet the approbation of every admirer of poetic excellence.

That our readers may form their own opinions of the merit of these poems, we shall present them with the following sonnet to the Duke of Richmond.

To the D U K E of R I C H M O N D.

On his Motion for ANNUAL PARLIAMENTS, and equal Representation, 1780.

The stream that, wandering from its parent source,
Brightens the bloom of many a fragrant flower,
Shall oft, as chance directs its careless course,
Swell into life the plant of poisonous power.
Thus flows from honour's fount the flattering tide:
It marks alike the virtuous and the vile!
Ah think not, Richmond, though it pamper pride,
Such vain distinction wins the muse's smile!
Let boastful heralds pompously proclaim
Whence flows thy blood, thy honours whence descend,

And

And draw from ducal rank an empty fame!

A loftier title shall thy country lend,

And fondly hail Thee by a nobler name—

Her Freedom's Champion, and the People's friend.

The beauty of this sonnet is too obvious and striking to require a comment. The analogy betwixt a stream nourishing, at the same time, a noxious and salutary plant, and honour exalting promiscuously the villain and the man of virtue, is just and happy; and the application to the truly great character to whom it is addressed, is equally delicate, ingenious, and poetical.

The other elegant sonnets in their collection are addressed to Dr. Watton, (Bishop of Llandaff), Mr. Jones, Mr. Watton, Dr. Thurlow (Bishop of Lincoln), and Mr. Hayley.

To these is added an Ode to the Earl of Effingham, on his going a volunteer to the relief of Gibraltar. On the commencement of the American war, this nobleman resigned his commission, and till the late opportunity of accompanying Lord Howe, his services, during the present war, have been lost to his country. A mind, eager to act, and qualified to command, must contemplate with pain and regret, that theatre of employment, on which it cannot be engaged with honour. These feelings are well described by the poet in the opening of his Ode. He afterwards combats those aspersions, which were propagated against the character of this respectable nobleman, during the unhappy commotions in the metropolis.

Art. 13. *Verfes on Several Occasions*, * 8vo. 2s. 2d. sewed. Sewell.

Though *verfification* is sometimes found in the society of poetry, the more frequently appears in public without this amiable companion. Conscious of their disunion, in the present case, the Author has very justly in his title page consulted the extent of his genius, and called his labours by their proper name. He tells us, in his preface, that they are intended only for his friends, and that he has sufficient philosophy to see them, without dejection confined to that amiable circle. We sincerely congratulate him upon his fortitude, since, on the present occasion, we think, he may have an opportunity of exerting it.

Art. 14. *The Genuine Copy of a Letter found November 5th. 1782, near Strawberry-Hill, Twickenham. Addressed to the Hon. Mr. H——ce W——le*, 8vo. 1s. Bladon.

In this letter the character of some of the most respectable *Anti-Rowleans* is violently attacked. They are accused of having written against the conviction of their own minds; and, what is worse, of having endeavoured to annihilate poor Rowley by dark and unfair machinations. The charge is no doubt serious; but it comes before the public in a very questionable shape: the *ipse dixit* of an anonymous pamphleteer is deservedly held in small estimation. Lucian's stoic, when pressed by his antagonist, is forced to supply his

* Viz. Dedicatory Verfes. Epistle to a Barrister. Epistle from Boileau. Satire on Boileau. April day. West to Gray. Petrarch to Laura. Laura. Eliza. Caroline, &c. &c. &c.

penury

60 MONTHLY CATALOGUE. *Poetry and Miscellanies.*

penury of argument by abuse, and exclaims "ὦ κακὸς αὐτὸς" "O damned villain"! may we not presume that the letter-writer feels himself in a similar situation?

Art. 15. *Siberian Anecdotes, a Novel*, 3 vols. 7s. 6d. sewed. Lowndes.

The Author of these volumes, out of the matter he had collected, has not been able to produce a *whole*. This indeed he has attempted, but without success: though there be juxtaposition, there is no union in the parts. To lengthen out his work by the introduction of a variety of stories, is a design in which he has perfectly succeeded, but to make the heterogeneous matter coalesce, appears evidently beyond his power.

Baron Rozen and his lieutenant Crucius, two Swedes, having been banished into Siberia, by the Czar Peter, after the battle of Poltowa, meet upon the banks of Dolonska with a Russian Knez, who receives them with hospitality, and recounts to them the history of his family. A manuscript in the library of the Knez furnishes us with the adventures of Yarmak, and the discovery and conquest of Siberia. A mutual passion takes place between Rosen and Eloisa, the daughter of the Knez; they are married, and agriculture, manufactures, and trade are introduced by the Baron. Crucius returns to Sweden, mixes in the world, marries, is cuckolded by his friend, his wife poisons herself, after her seducer had been killed by her father; and Crucius retires to seek comfort in the society of his friend Rozen. He once more quits Siberia to solicit the protection of the Czar for the new colony, and after a variety of adventures, returns with a second wife, accompanied by Calsha, Eliza, Catherine, Romanoff, &c. Crucius is sometime after drowned in the Irtysh, and his wife Selima dies of grief. The story concludes with the death of Rosen, who, leaving his colony in a flourishing situation, "was gathered to his fathers (as the Author informs us) "as the ripe sheaf falls in the day of harvest."

Such is the skeleton of the work: which is for the most part heavy and uninteresting; and though friendly to the cause of virtue, will not do the good which was intended, from the want of those allurements that works of immoral tendency too often possess.

Art. 16. *Love Fragments*. A Series of Letters, now first published by Mr. Robinson, price 2s. 6d. sewed. J. Wallis, London, and J. Binns, Leeds.

These scraps of sensibility seem to be written in imitation of some parts of Richardson, engrafted on the manner (we mean the *manner of printing*;) of Sterne. "O imitatores! servum pecus!" Though Mr. Robinson professes himself to be "a young and inexperienced adventurer," as an editor (Author), he has managed matters with all the adroitness of a veteran in the art of publication. In the space of 139 pages, and these too in the true Shandean style, where scratches, dashes, stars and blanks help to swell the volume, he has contrived to kill two pretty girls, and, if we understand him right, for he does not speak out, to ruin a third. But, for good and wise purposes, he has left his readers almost totally in the dark as to the cause of these dismal events. The new-man who discovers the

springs

springs and wires that give motion to his puppets, loses the admiration and the *esteem* of the public. Whether Mr. R. viewed matters in this light we pretend not to determine; but he has kindly promised in a second volume now preparing for the press, to clear up the whole, and inform us of things we little expected.

Art. 17. *Frailties of Fashion, or the Adventures of an Irish Smock*, interspersed with whimsical Anecdotes of a Nankeen Pair of Breeches; containing among a great Variety of curious Connections between the most celebrated Demi Reps and Beaux Garçons upon the Ton. The Secret Memoirs of Madame D'Eon; as related by herself. Amours of Count D'Artois. Private Intrigues of Lady W——y and Mrs. N——n; never before published. The Frolics of Boarding School Misses. The Gambols of Maids of Honour, &c. &c. Twelves. 2s. 6d. sewed. Lister.

This performance is addressed to the passions, and a sale is expected from the effects of the *title page*, rather than from the contents of the volume. The volume is an indecent and impure farrago; and it would be of service to the community, could a summary method be invented to suppress publications calculated to inflame the youth of both sexes and encourage vice, sensuality, and licentiousness.

Art. 18. *An Extract from the Life of Lieutenant Henry Foley*, of his Majesty's — Regiment of Foot, vol. 1. 12mo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Robinson.

Of the many forward sentimentalist who have claimed their descent from the ingenious Yorick, few have been able to defend their title by any plausible pretences. Lieutenant Henry Foley comes not in so *questionable shape*, but we will venture to pronounce him illegitimate; and, though we cannot but approve the innocent cast of his sentiments, we fear they are deficient in that species of seasoning, which should render them palatable to the public.

Art. 19. *Remarks on the Trial of the Right Honourable Ann, Countess of Cork and Orrery for Adultery, and violating her Marriage Vow*. In a Letter to the Right Honourable, Edmund, Earl of Cork and Orrery, 4to. 1s. Wenman.

Lest the wounds which Lord Cork received from a suspicion of his lady's infidelity should be too speedily closed, this *humane* writer has been kind enough to remind him of the principal circumstances of her unhappy trial; and has at last proved that his Lordship is *only* unfortunate, and his Lady, perhaps, *not* chaste.

Art. 20. *Letters on a Variety of Subjects*. Dedicated, with Submission, to the whole human Race. By Palemon, in 2 vols. vol. 1. printed for the Author, 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Bew.

Palemon's Letters are like a village shop, which contains something of every thing, though the commodities be none of the best. Palemon is an universal man: religion and politics, verse and prose, wit and wisdom are to him equally easy, he is an adept in both the ludicrous and pathetic, he is——but we collect from the book that Palemon is in bad circumstances and appears to have a benevolent heart; we hope therefore that his book will meet with no critics, and many purchasers. Though the letters are said to be in 2 volumes,

lumes, one only is yet published. Much of the matter contained in this volume has already appeared in the news-papers.

Art. 21. *O'Brien's Lusorium*: Being a Collection of Convivial Songs, Lectures, &c. entirely Original, in various Stiles, &c. &c. 12mo. boards. price 2s. 6d. Durham,

We pay a compliment to Mr. O'Brien, when we say that he seems to inherit a small portion of the humour of the facetious Tom Brown. His prose is bad, his verse execrable, and both in many parts highly indecent. The following stanza in the song called "Anacreontic philosophy," seems one of the best in the book.

'Mong moderns, let Priestly and others keep squabbling
'Bout matter and spirit, they're all in the dark,

But we, while we quaff, are convinc'd, without dabbling
In jargon abstruse, that we're nearer the mark :

For while, with sage mutt'ring,
With sarcastic sputt'ring,
And bombastic splutt'ring,

They each other batter,
Wine makes us all spirit,
So vast is it's merit,

But those who decline it are lumps of dull matter.

The portraits of the Author in the various characters he assumes, have a certain degree of merit.

Art. 22. *The Naval Triumph, a Poem*, 4to. 1s. Kearsly.

Lord Rodney has not been unhappy in his panegyrist. His triumphs over Spain, Holland, and France, are celebrated in strains far above the mediocrity of the general run of such temporary effusions. Nor does the bard run into that vein of abuse against the enemies of his hero so common to partizans, whether in prose or verse. If they are noticed, it is with gentleness and delicacy: Mr. Burke himself could not have culled from his extensive repository of rhetorical flowers, a more elegant *bouquet*, than that which the poet has presented him in the following stanzas; which we give as a specimen of the work.

But whose mild form the transient cloud conceals,
Her wiles have spread to shade a vet'ran's fame?

Alas! with grief th' historic Muse reveals,
With fault'ring accents, BURKE's long-honour'd name.

Oh how could his pure soul, enthron'd sublime,
Stoop from ethereal heights, to Passion's turbid clime?

He, from whose lips such elocution flows,

As peace to stormy senates can impart;
He who with softness of the feather'd snows

Falls on the sense, then melts into the heart. —

Not he, upon whose lips prophetic hung
The clust'ring bees, more sweet, or more divinely sung.

'Twas thus the Thracian Bard, with heav'nly song,

Charm'd the fierce vultures of the soul to rest;
And as the thrilling music flow'd along,

The rocks, and hills, and groves, its pow'r confess:

Fair Science dawn'd upon the savage mind,
By Eloquence disarm'd, by Wisdom's rules refin'd.

A few inaccurate rhymes, such as "renown throne," deck wake," "overthrown throne," may perhaps merit the Author's attention on a second edition of the poem.

Art. 23. *The Trial of the Honourable Col. Cosmo Gordon, of the Third Regiment of Foot-Guards, for Neglect of Duty before the enemy, on the 23d June, 1780, near Springfield in the Jerseys: containing the whole Proceedings of a General Court Martial, held at the City of New-York, on the 22d of August, and continued by several Adjournments to the 4th September, 1782.* 8vo. 2s. Harlow.

The nature of this publication is explained by the Title; and we apprehend our readers will require no farther information upon the topic, than the sentence of the Court, which is as follows. "The Court having considered the evidence for and against the prisoner, THE HONOURABLE COSMO GORDON, together with what he had to offer in his defence, is of opinion that he is NOT GUILTY. The Court doth therefore honourably ACQUIT him. (the said COL. GORDON) of the whole and every part of the charge exhibited against him."

Signed John Campbell, President.
Stephen P. Adye, Deputy Judge Advocate.

POLITICAL.

Art. 24. *The Corrector's Remarks on the First Part of his Majesty's Speech to Parliament, December 5.* 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

The corrector has prostituted a very considerable share of abilities to the vilest purposes of dissingenuity, and manifest pique and rancour. The virulence and unfairness of his remarks recoil upon himself. The reader is not so much dissatisfied with any part of his Majesty's speech, as he is moved with indignation at the petulance and passion of the corrector.

A single instance will give abundant credit to the justness of these remarks on this angry writer.

"We find our Sovereign, says he, in the very commencement of the speech, tacitly declaring, that *before* the close of the last Sessions of Parliament he had *not* employed his whole time in the care and attention which the important and critical conjuncture of public affairs required of him."

The Sovereign, when he meets Parliament, is not surely expected to take an higher retrospect of the public affairs than the period of the last prorogation. He only gives a view of the most material occurrences of the interval.

Art. 25. *The Recovery of America Demonstrated, to be practicable by Great Britain, upon Principles and Deductions, that are clear, precise, and convincing.* Containing amongst other Matters, a Copy of the Outlines of a Plan for re-inflating the British Empire, addressed to the Earl of Shelburne, when his Lordship was One of his Majesty's principal Secretaries of State, and delivered to Mr. Nepean, one of the under Secretaries in the Month of May last, offering to demonstrate the Practicability of recovering America, and to shew the Immensity of our National Resources.

By

By the Author; a man of no Party, who will speedily publish an Essay on National Resources. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

On the 28th of November 1782, an address was transmitted to several of the Cabinet Ministers, in which the addresser offered to demonstrate the practicability of recovering America, and to produce "a scale of national resources from one to ten million sterling per annum."

As no notice was taken of this address by the ministers to whom it was transmitted, the Author conceived that it was his duty humbly to submit the important subjects alluded to in the address to the consideration of the public. The plan proposed for the recovery of America is briefly this, "to form alliances that would counter-balance those which have enabled America to resist the power of Great Britain. Or, what amounts to the same thing, to reduce the European allies of those States to the alternative of a dereliction of them, or a contravention of European interests. Great Britain can obtain, or even enforce such alliances, as long as Hanover is hereditary in the same Sovereign. The Emperor of Germany and the King of Prussia entertain mutual jealousies of each other, Let Great Britain attack the maritime commerce of Prussia. The king could retort only by attacking Hanover. The invasion of Hanover by Prussia, with negotiations at the Courts of Vienna and Petersburg, would procure allies for Great Britain, and rouse all Europe into action. America deprived of allies, would treat with Britain on terms short of Independence."

Art. 26. *A Defence of the Right Honourable the Lord Shelburne, from the Reproaches of his numerous Enemies*; in a Letter to Sir George Savile, Bart. To which is added a Postscript addressed to the Right Honourable John Earl of Stair, 5th Edition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

This mock defence is a very serious and severe attack upon Lord Shelburne's moral as well as political character. With regard to the wit of this ironical performance, it is not of the first rate. The idea of censuring the Minister under the colour of defending him, is no very bright fancy. If the Author however is destitute of the ironical powers of SWIFT, he seems to possess all his *severity*; it would, perhaps, be unjust to use the term *malignity*: men of the most benevolent minds are susceptible of the keenest resentments. The Author is animated with a degree of bitterness against Lord Shelburne which is seldom, if ever inspired, by the mere contemplation of the most infamous characters. It is probable that some private and particular cause of disgust, is in reality, the thalia that has dictated this splenetic performance. Virulence is utterly incompatible with true humour, and the Author who professes to play and amuse himself with Lord Shelburne, in the course of the exercise, drops his mask, and discovers a countenance inflamed with the greatest degree of fury.

But although irony is by no means the strength of this writer, he neither wants powers of expression, nor variety of knowledge and information. He seems to be well acquainted with the views of Ministers, and great political characters of this country, and to have been indulged with a peep behind the curtain, in some late changes
in

in Administration. The most entertaining, and the best executed part of this performance is, a contrast between the characters of Lord Shelburne and Mr. Fox:—the first is distinguished as artificial, false, cringing, and temporising; the second as plain, honest, bold, constant, and proud: but we must refer the reader to the pamphlet itself, which is undoubtedly spirited and entertaining. A postscript is addressed to the Earl of Stair, in which the Author charges that nobleman with inconsistencies both in his writings and in his conduct; and with being a friend to the Earl of Shelburne and the Earl of *Bute*!

Art. 27. *A Short but Serious Reply to the Author of a [mock] Defence of the Earl of Shelburne, from the Reproaches of his numerous Enemies.* In a Letter to Sir George Saville, Bart. Intended to prevent Prejudice, and to expose Malignity and Deception. 1s. Bell.

The writer of this reply charges the Author of the mock defence "with a total ignorance of Lord Shelburne, his person, his ways of thinking, his public and private virtues, connections or friends."

The performance before us is written in a feeble manner, and beats not any marks of high powers either of reason or imagination. Nevertheless the Author confutes his antagonist (in some instances at least) by a plain tale, and convicts him of ignorance and want of candour.

Art. 28. *A Word at Parting.* To the Earl of Shelburne. 1s. Debrett.

The Author of this Word insinuates that he is a person of some distinction, by alluding to "a conversation which he had, (on a very important subject,) with one of his lordships most intimate noble friends." From that conversation he understood that the predilection of the Court was still as strong for the prosecution of the American war, as ever it had been in the Administration of Lord North: and that Lord Shelburne upon discovering this "ruling passion," to be unconquerable, and the tenure of office to be dependent upon it, was disposed to adopt and gratify it. And that his Lordship, by way of vindicating so palpable a contradiction to all his former speeches in Parliament, had said "that it was no more than what the late Mr. Pitt had done, when in contradiction to his former declarations he prosecuted with great vigour, and at great expence, the German war."

From these *postulata* the Author reasons: and shews that there was as little analogy between the German and American wars, as there is similitude between the characters of the Earls of Chatham and Shelburne. He charges Lord Shelburne with duplicity, with narrowness of capacity, and with paying court to the *Scotch* and the *Bedfords*.

Art. 29. *Facts and their Consequences, submitted to the Consideration of the Public at large; but more particularly to that of the Finance Minister, and of those who are, or mean to become Creditors to the State.* By John Earl of Stair, 1s. Stockdale.

The grand conclusion, or consequence, which Lord Stair draws from the facts he states, is, that fifteen millions is the very least sum that will be required yearly to carry on the administration of Go-

vernment in times of peace, and this on a supposition that peace ~~can~~ be procured in the course of 1782, and without discharging one farthing of the principal of the national debt, or even making large provisions for contingent expences of importance. This, his Lordship observes, is an awful and an alarming sum: and he calls upon the noble Lord at the head of the Treasury, to explain what inducements he has to believe so large a sum can be drawn from the people with fallen rents, and a diminished languishing trade? The Author is in a very melancholy mood, and affirms that by continuing the war, nothing is to be expected but the greatest disasters. A *losing* peace, he maintains, must be infinitely better *now*, than a ruinous one at the end of another unfortunate year. Should the prime Minister continue the war another year, Lord Stair, though no part of his estate is at a strained rent, and though all of it paid fines at the renewal of leases, would be willing to give a handsome premium to any of the underwriters of credit to insure to him for twenty years to come, one half of what it at present produces.

Art. 30. *Remarks upon the Report of a Peace, in Consequence of Mr. Secretary Townshend's Letter to the Lord Mayor of London, Bank Directors, &c.* By the Author of the Defence of the Earl of Shelburne. 1s. Stockdale.

These remarks were written during the interval between Mr. Townshend's letter to the Lord Mayor of London and the meeting of Parliament. The Author treats this epistle with just severity, and with great vivacity exposes its "four natures; viz. Lacedæmonian, Hibernian, Venetian, and Carthaginian." It is Lacedæmonian, he observes in brevity, and Hibernian in accuracy. "Mr. Townshend is 'the right owner of these virtues.'" "Its Venetian and Punic merits (by which he understands subtilty and corruption) claim the 'first Lord of the Treasury for a parent.'"

The Author next arraigns Mr. W. Pitt, and others for not leaving Administration with Mr. Fox. "The principles which constituted the basis of the Rockingham Administration were then abandoned. War was the ministerial object. Nothing but 'the fear of losing his power could induce him to think of peace.'" After much declamation, Lord Shelburne's downfall is prognosticated. This pamphlet is written with spirit. But there is a turgid and theatrical swell in the periods, which accords indeed with the exaggerations of party zeal and passion, but which is entirely repugnant to the sobriety and chastity of taste, as well as to candour and truth.

Art. 31. *Political Memoirs, or a View of some of the first Operations of the War, after the French Notification, as they were regarded by Foreigners; in a Series of Papers, with Notes and Reflections.* To which is prefixed an Introduction, containing Thoughts on an immediate peace. 8vo, 2s. Part I. Stockdale.

These Memoirs are comprised in seventy four octavo pages: but the pamphlet is swelled to a considerable size by an Introduction that takes up exactly the same number of pages. It is the production of a gentleman, immediately upon his return from the Continent, where he had passed some time, previous to, and after our rupture with France, and is the result of impressions received from

observation and from conversation abroad. The train of thought into which facts and the sentiments of foreigners led this Author, not being the *invention*, or the *art* of the day, ought to be received, as he justly observes, at the tribunal of candour, exempted from that prejudice that usually affects occasional productions. The *amor patriæ* is never felt so forcibly as in foreign, and especially hostile countries. The Author of the memoirs seems to be sincerely interested in the prosperity and glory of Great Britain, and to have felt during his residence in France, the utmost indignation and concern at the misconduct and negligence which had reduced her grandeur. Yet even now he does not despair of the state, provided the present Minister, agreeably to his former sentiments repeatedly published by him in the Senate, will stop the course of our abatement, and exert the power of this great nation to wipe away its reproach. He advises to keep Gibraltar; to pass an act of the legislature for placing Prince Ferdinand at the head of our army, and to hurl the thunder of war against all our enemies.

The facts upon which this writer reasons, appear to us to be well authenticated, and his reflections are the genuine offspring of an honest heart. But whether his enthusiasm for the glory of England has not led him too easily to believe what he wishes to be true, is a question that may bear to be disputed; and which we submit to the judgment of the reader.

Art. 32. *A Letter in Defence of Mr. Fox and others; in answer to Cicero, Lucius Cataline, or the American Deputy.* To which is added several letters addressed to the Prince of Wales and the Livery of London, on different occasions, of a political and important Nature, 1s. Debrett.

"Deriving a political tenure from the Spectator, you fix on Mr. Fox's button, and thus making him your captive, you roar out treason, black designs, conspiracy, under every button."—"As far as language goes, currency pleases you, though English pounds have taught you to prefer sterling to currency, in point of professions and national attachments." "The flow of your periods are dexterous and well managed to prop assertion, and keep it up, till a glut of conjecture rises up in digestion and demands evidence, proof, and some pauses of matter of fact."—"These are specimens of the sentiments, stile, and manner of this weak and contemptible writer.

Art. 33. *Thoughts on the present War, with an impartial Review of Lord North's Administration, in conducting the American, French, Spanish, and Dutch War; and in the Management of Contracts, Taxes, the Public Money, &c.* 1s. 6d. Dilly.

True observations on thread-bare subjects! Lord North's administration is partially reviewed, and severely censured. But the Marquis of Rockingham with his friends succeed to the old Ministry; and the Author, who wrote during this Administration, expresses a confident hope that *things would go on to his wish*. The Marquis with his party were engaged, according to this writer, "in a greater reformation than had taken place since the revolution." "The blessings of the people rest upon those men who prop our country in its declining age."

This writer professes himself an admirer of Lord Keppel. Yet he says, "our power slipped from us through the sloth of our rulers; Neptune fell asleep; and the trident was stolen out of his hand." Is this assertion compatible with respect for Admiral Keppel? Or can there be any other person to whom it alludes under the designation of Neptune?

Art. 34. *Consideration of Taxes: submitted in a Series of Letters to the Right Honourable Lord North, his Majesty's late First Lord of the Treasury, and Chancellor of the Exchequer.* To which is prefixed, a Memorial to the Right Honourable the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury; and a Letter to Richard Burke, Esquire. By J. R. Staub, Notary Public, 8vo: 2s. 6d. Stockdale..

Mr. Staub, in a series of letters, had pointed out to Lord North a variety of objects of taxation, and that Minister he has reason to think profited by some of his hints. The plans he has proposed the Author thinks, have been of great service to the state, by enlightening and informing the mind of Lord North, and thereby exhibiting to the world a proof of the great resources of this country. These resources, or part of them as displayed by Mr. Staub, gave stability to the stocks, notwithstanding the French, Spanish, and Dutch wars, and the hostile appearance of an armed neutrality. And he asserts that from 1775 to 1778, our public funds fell near one third in their value. The Author in justice to himself, and that his observations may be more extensively useful, than they have yet been, thought it proper to publish his letters. Perhaps he magnifies the importance of his plans, but he sufficiently proves that he has furnished Lord North with several excellent hints.

Art. 35. *Characters of Parties in the British Government.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robson.

It is the object of this Author to trace the condition of parties in England from the earliest times to the present hour. In this long career, he is not equally fortunate. Neither his industry nor his learning are considerable; and in the remote periods of English history his information is widely defective. He touches, indeed, upon great constitutional points; but the views entertained concerning these by the more distinguished historians, antiquaries, and lawyers, have escaped altogether his researches and scrutiny. His reasonings are not supported by facts; and his conclusions produce no conviction.

These strictures while they apply to his historical deductions, refer not, however, to his observations on the present times. In this division of his performance he is better instructed; and indeed the sources of information were more obvious and certain. In general, it may be remarked, that he is disposed to be candid; and that his language, though it attains not to elegance, is clear and perspicuous.

Since the unfortunate Administration of the Earl of Bute, it is his opinion that the political factions in England may be divided into Tories, republicans, and whigs; and as a specimen of his ability we shall place before our readers his description of the latter.

" It was the honour of our party at the Revolution, to establish
 " the rights equally of the K—g and of the people. We have
 " always considered the independence of the estates of Parliament
 " as the spirit of the government, and the source of its prosper-
 " ity. Though the K—g can do no harm, the Ministers of the
 " K—g may; we therefore thought the institution of the Junto
 " fatal to freedom. It reduced the Minister to be a machine in of-
 " fice, which a secret, or treasonable, as readily as a wise or pa-
 " triotic hand might direct. We entertained, however, too just no-
 " tions of our Sovereign's rights, to question his title to name
 " his own Ministers: the moments we hoped were few, before his
 " wisdom and candour would discover this Tory policy to be ini-
 " mical to the interests of his Crown, and a deep wound in the
 " affections of a people devoted to the H—n family. Guardians
 " of the constitution which our fathers had established, we op-
 " posed innovations in the rights of election: though enemies to the
 " vices of the man, we blamed the punishment of the Senator
 " When a Ch—r, and the friend of Lord C—m, because
 " he gave a free opinion on a constitutional question, was dismissed
 " from office, we could not but withdraw all confidence in a
 " Junto, who were adding to their encroachments on the legisla-
 " ture, a violation of the judicial rights. The change of a Mi-
 " nister could only recall our hopes, not our confidence: we flatter-
 " ed ourselves that, from his acknowledged merits and honour,
 " he would be no less powerful with the Cabinet than he was in
 " the House of Commons. Our opposition to the American contest,
 " sprang not from the spirit of party men: it was dictated by the
 " nature of British liberty; a liberty which as little allows the
 " subject to be taxed without his consent, as to be condemned
 " without the judgment of his Peers. If we foreboded those conse-
 " quences which have divided and destroyed the empire, like men,
 " we felt for the disgraces of our arms, and were ready to re-
 " venge them. We, indeed, recommended conciliatory measures,
 " before mutual injuries and sufferings should confirm national
 " antipathy and hatred; we dreaded the change introducing
 " into the political system of nations, by the use of a rival power,
 " prepared to be the instrument of France, in wreaking her ven-
 " geance on his ancient rival. But when America declared her
 " independence, when her alliance with France was publicly avow-
 " ed, when we saw the storm gathering, which was to burst on our
 " devoted country; though our indignation rose high at the au-
 " thors of our calamities, it was still more strongly excited by
 " the ungenerous conduct of the Colonies, in combining with the
 " enemies of Britain to ruin their ancient country. It was not
 " now a question of right, but of power. If America should be
 " independent, and the dupe of France, we concluded that Britain
 " would be lost. We saw our fleets and armies sent to action;
 " we heard of inactivity and disgrace with honest sorrow. It
 " was not till the Counsels of the K—g were inadequate to their
 " own views; it was not till the nation felt their sufferings in-
 " tolerable, that our whole party united with the Republicans in-

“ ejecting the Tory Ministry. Those great exertions which the safety of the state required, could only spring from the people : his M——y gave them the Minister of their choice, and the virtues of L——d R———m assigned him this honourable station. The distresses of the people called for peace, though their spirits never can yield to mean concessions. We wished to recall our ancient allies the Dutch : we negotiated with France ; we yielded to the necessities of the times, and acknowledged the independence of America. But because we accepted the confidence of our Sovereign, the Republicans have pronounced us deceitful and infamous : the nation is to be implored to punish our insolence, for daring to think our talents or our public virtues equal to theirs. We pretend not to foresee events, nor to what humiliates the calamities of our country may reduce it : we can only promise unremitting ardor in reforming finances, in checking corruption, and in promoting merit. We shall consider it is our duty and our glory rather to perish in defending the territories, the rights, and the honour of Britain, than to survive them.”

— “ Heaven and earth will witness

“ If Rome must fall, that we are innocent.

Art. 36. *Narrative of Lieutenant General Sir Henry Clinton, K. B. relative to his Conduct during Part of his Command of the King's Troops in North America; particularly to that which respects the unfortunate Issue of the Campaign in 1781.* With an Appendix, containing Topics and Extracts of those Parts of his Correspondence with Lord George Germain, Earl Cornwallis, Rear Admiral Graves, &c. which are referred to therein. 8vo. 2s. Debrett.

This Narrative is authentic ; and has been occasioned by the censures which have been made so strongly and so repeatedly upon the conduct of General Clinton. But while it demonstrates that acrimonious expressions have been employed with regard to him, it is by no means a complete vindication of his military operations. It throws a clear and steady light upon some facts which the public is interested to know : but it leaves others not less important in a state of imperfection and doubt. The friends of the General will peruse it with some apprehensions, that his measures were not sufficiently vigorous ; his enemies will perceive its weak places, and point them out ; and the public will hesitate to pronounce the uniform propriety of his behaviour.

As a literary composition, this performance is not entitled to commendation. The great generals of antiquity could use their pens and their swords with equal address. But this description will by no means apply to modern commanders. The Narrative of Sir Henry Clinton is inelegant and sometimes ungrammatical ; and though many dispatches appear in the Appendix to it, they are all in this respect, equally defective and censurable.

Art. 37. *A Letter to the First Belfast Company of Volunteers in the Province of Ulster.* By a Member of the British Parliament. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The Author of this letter is of opinion, that unless the repeal of

of the Declaratory Act be followed by an express renunciation of the right to bind Ireland, by British Acts of Parliament, Ireland neither will, nor ought to be satisfied. The repeal of the Declaratory Act was but a *constructive* security to Ireland. It was not *direct*. If an express and direct security was to be given to America against the encroachments of a power which she dreaded, why, the Author asks, was a constructive one deemed sufficient for Ireland?

This little pamphlet is written in a spirit of great candour and moderation.

Art. 38. *A Letter to the Lord Viscount Beauchamp*, upon the Subject of his Letter to the First Belfast Company of Volunteers in the Province of Ulster. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

The Writer of this letter charges Lord Beauchamp with reviving an anxiety, which, in consequence of the transactions of the last sessions of the Parliaments of both kingdoms, had in a great measure subsided. He proceeds to point out some mistakes in his Lordship's performance, "which" he says, "would almost lead one to suppose him unacquainted with the grounds on which the respective partizans for a repeal or renunciation (the great question that has for sometime agitated Ireland) have carried on that controversy."

The scope of this pamphlet is to shew, that the people of Ireland expected indeed, that England would retract its claim of binding the sister-kingdom: but that the right of binding her they never acknowledged, and therefore never required that it should be renounced. The Author asserts, that however columns of Volunteer Resolutions may alarm common readers of Irish papers, unacquainted with the real state and temper of the country; those who have opportunities of being informed, must be well convinced, that the bulk of the nation consider their object as obtained, and wish to see a perfect restoration of that harmony between the kingdoms, which they feel to be the interest of both. Whether so vast a majority of the Irish nation are satisfied, that by the repeal of the 6th of George the First, the British Parliament has surrendered the claim to bind Ireland; or that a formal renunciation of such a right or claim is the general wish of Ireland is a matter concerning which we pretend not to decide: political arithmetic is a very difficult subject. With regard to the subject in question, the Irish nation are evidently divided. Every man calls the circle of his own acquaintance the world. Hence many mistakes in politics. Those persons with whom the writer of the letter converses, may be satisfied that enough has been done for Ireland. Lord Beauchamp's friends are of a different opinion: and they have expressed their jealousies in a very open and direct manner.

These things will hereafter, in the annals of the stage, rise in judgment against the Manager of Covent Garden. It is pleaded, and perhaps with truth, that they have not been done in the spirit of oppression, but to retrench what were deemed superfluities, in order to embellish essentials: if such was the motive, it was narrow and ill-advised; the cause was inadequate to the effect: or if depredations must be committed, let them fall on the rich and not on the poor; on the actor whose salary is enormous, and not on him whose income will not permit him to make the appearance his situation demands. Mr. Harris spares no expence, however, to attract the notice of the town, and therefore merits that success he in general obtains.

With respect to the Performers during the last season, there was no remarkable change, except that Mrs. Crawford abruptly broke off a negociation with the Proprietors of Drury Lane, which they supposed concluded, and went to Dublin, where her success was very inadequate to her hopes.

It remains then to take a view of the new pieces that were played at each house, their merits, and their success. The sum total of all were, including Tragedy, Comedy, Opera, Farce, and Pantomime, sixteen; two of which were alterations, viz. Jupiter and Alcmena, an opera from the *Amphitryon* of Dryden, and the Scots Pastoral called the Gentle Shepherd, reduced to an after-piece. Let us begin with the tragedies.

The first of these was the *COUNT of NARBONNE*, brought out at Covent Garden Theatre on the 17th of November, 1781. The fable is founded on a Gothic Romance called the *Castle of Otranto*, written by Mr. Horace Walpole, and famous for the force with which it excites the passion of terror. The Author of the play in question is Mr. Jephson, before known to the poetical and theatrical world, by his tragedy of *Braganza*. In this abstract of the business of a whole season an examen sufficiently copious to do justice to the author and to criticism, cannot be expected; a general character of each piece only will be attempted. In the fable of the Count of Narbonne there is a radical error, which scarcely any degree of genius could overcome: the unhappy events are all in consequence of a prophetic curse, impending over the Count and his race, and continually ratified by prodigies, to revenge an ambitious murder committed by the Count's father. The present age is less disposed to miraculous credulity than any of the past; the mind in spite of itself is still running to probability, and when once it loses sight of that, suspense and anxiety are lost also. Fate is the unseen agent that produces the tragical incidents in this poem; her decrees are announced in the first scene, and repeated in almost every succeeding one: the imagination therefore is soon convinced that the catastrophe must unavoidably be unfortunate and destructive to the Count and all his family. There are several other defects in the plot which retard and perplex the mind. There are two very active personages, Godfrey and Isabel, that never appear, this is a modern artifice intended to produce simplicity, but it generally has the contrary effect; it entangles, what it is meant to untie. There can be no reason given why Adelaide should

should not acquaint her father with the generous valour of Theodore when he rescued her from a band of outlaws; nay, there is every reason why she should, except that it was inconvenient to the poet. In the third act the auditor is forced into a belief that inevitable death must be the fate of Theodore, from the furious and implacable Count, the executioners are prepared, the youth is brought in, his enemy hears what encreases his rage, yet is the Count's vengeance deferred. The passion most incited is horror, which is too painful a one to be dwelt upon and reiterated: the last scene is peculiarly horrible. With all these errors the poem has a great deal of merit, the language is strong, and the feelings are often powerfully awakened. The character of Theodore is strikingly happy in the first scene, and that of Austin would have been a noble one, had not his sentiments so frequently been interspersed with superstitious omens and religious dogmas, which have certainly an ill-effect in the mouth of a consistent and elevated character.

The other tragedy, for the season produced but two, was the **FAIR CIRCASSIAN**, played at Drury Lane, and written by Mr. Pratt, lately known to the literary world by the name of Courtney Melmoth. It is remarkable enough that two novels, which derive all their great effects from supernatural agency, should afford fables for tragic poems, where the mind is dissatisfied if any thing is improbable; and still more remarkable that they should both be produced in one year. The Author of the *Fair Circassian* being obliged to reject the machinery of the romance therefore was impeded by those parts of the story, which the assistance of this machinery could not be made consistent. No genius thunders in the Theatre, and pronounces "Fate has decreed Almorán to Almeida," but a weak artifice of a priest and a scowl are substituted, inadequate to the effect, and bordering on the ridiculous. No Talisman actually changes the form of Almorán to that of Hamet, but a similar dress is procured, and the audience and Almeida may suppose Almorán to be Hamet if they can. The changes of Almorán's temper in the play, from ferocity to forgiveness, from hatred to friendship, and from friendship to hatred again, are too sudden for nature or credibility. In fact, the Author had so many difficulties to encounter, either by the choice of, or adhering too strictly to Dr. Hawkesworth's tale, that we venture to predict he would have succeeded better, had he endeavoured to have been more original. The great merit of the play is, the strength of sentiment, which, in the three first acts, is so frequently and finely displayed: truth, however, obliges us to add, that many of these sentiments are the legal property of the novelist, and not of the dramatist, though the latter has with great judgment boldly brought them forward, and placed them in a forcible and striking point of view. When we say that sentiments are displayed in any performance with great force, it necessarily implies a superior power of diction, which in the *Fair Circassian* is often apparent. The reverse, however, is sometimes the case. After Calé, at the end of the first act, has inflamed the passions of Almo-

can till he consents to the murder of his brother, he (Caled) can claim."

"Oh glorious emulation!—By you heaven
I light ambition at my Master's blaze!
 The soul of Caled catches fire from his;
 I rise, I tower to do some noble deed
 That the imperial Almorán shall fix
 Secure; uncrowded on his rightful throne."

To this speech, which certainly approaches the utmost limits of bombast, a line succeeds that Chrononhotonthologos himself need not be ashamed to adopt.

"Then take a rich reward," exclaims Almorán, and every one supposes he means to give the minister of his pleasures and his revenge, and who is going to risk life and fame, soul and body for his service, a kingdom at least.

"Then take a rich reward—thy king's embrace."

And then the king and Caled hug each other. Surely the poet who perriwigged with snow the bald pate mountains, never exceeded this. This is not noticed to insult or give the Author pain, but to make him more cautious, for a few such errors would damn a better tragedy than has been lately written. The *Fair Circassian* was brought out on the 27th of November 1781, the same day the parliament met, to which and the success of the *Vestris*, a very witty and well-timed epilogue alluded. Both these tragedies had a considerable run.

The first comedy this season was *DUPLICITY*, written by Mr. Moteroft, a Comedian belonging to Drury Lane Theatre, though his play was performed at Covent Garden. There has not been a comedy within the memory of man, in which the denouement has been so artfully concealed, and the suspense and anxiety of the audience concerning the fate of the principal character so thoroughly excited, as in *Duplicity*. This of all others is the most necessary requisite to produce surprize and pleasure, and to keep attention perfectly awake. The moral of this piece is as excellent as the fable, and were men to be reasoned out of their passions, this play might hope to make converts from the gaming-table. There is, however, a very capital error in the consistency of Sir Harry Portland's character. He, by the nature of the fable, ought to be a young man of the most liberal principles, and the strictest equity; and is so, except in one instance, which instance is a violent breach of propriety. This young gentleman, though he possesses the nicest sense of honour, condescends after he has lost his own fortune, to lose his sister's likewise, and to involve her, as he supposes, in irreparable ruin. No man with Sir Harry's feelings could do this, nor could any woman like Clara (his mistress) forgive such a dishonourable violation of principle. The play is, notwithstanding, a very powerful effort of genius, and the circumstances attending it and its author are remarkable. *Duplicity* was brought out in the very worst part of the season, on the 13th of October 1781, before

even the Citizens were returned from the Watering Places, while the evenings were long, and the town was empty: and, though well received, was not permitted as is, and ever has been usual in such cases, to take its run while the curiosity of the town was alive, but even on the first night of representation, another play was advertised at the bottom of the play-bills for the next night. In short, though every person spoke highly of the comedy, it was suffered to dwindle into forgetfulness, and has never since been attended to by the Manager. The players say, no such liberty durst have been taken with any poet that had not been himself a player. The writer of this comedy is one of those who, self-educated, rise by the efforts of persevering, industry, and superior faculties, from ignorance and obscurity into estimation. The Author of the *Earl of Essex* was a Bricklayer, the Author of *Duplicity* is, or rather was, a Shoemaker. Those who are fond of observing nature in all her operations, find no small amusement in tracing to what extent, to what degree of excellence, she by her own exertions can arrive.

WHICH IS THE MAN, written by Mrs. Cowley, was the next comedy this season produced; it was played, for the first time, on the 9th of February 1782, and was well received. As it has not yet been printed, neither its beauties nor its defects make so permanent an impression, nor allow such certainty to criticism, as leisure and cool reflection give. Stage representation however is sufficient for a character of the piece, so short and general as this must necessarily be. The most marking defects in *Which is the Man* are feebleness of plot and character. The interest is so equally divided between the affairs of Julia, Belville, and Fitzherbert in *this* scene, and Lord Sparkle, Lady Bell, and Beauchamp in *the next*, that the mind cannot attend to either of them, consequently no great effect can be produced. Add to this, there is the incumbrance of the two Pendragons, by which the main design is not at all forwarded, but they are brought on merely to be laughed at; which purpose, it is true, they effect, and sometimes very forcibly, though they are evidently nothing more than a second edition of Squire Turnbull and his sister, in the comedy of *Duplicity*. So late art has the Author used to keep her intentions secret, and give the denouement its proper effect, that the comedy can scarcely be said to be any thing more than detached scenes, which leave no anxiety concerning the future.

Originality of character is in these days, an exceedingly difficult task, to which few, very few are equal, and therefore the want of it must be ranked among the venial sins of the poet: but not so, confusion of character. To make each person in the drama consistent, and speak nothing but what is probable and natural for one with his habits and turn of thinking to speak, is, or ought to be the first, because it is the most essential utility of the dramatic art. The mind can instantly fly with the utmost ease from hence to India, and though upon reflection, or going with preconceived opinions, it should perceive the absurdity of supposing such a sudden evagation real: yet, this is by no means so painful a sensation as it would receive, from hearing a sensible and well-bred gentleman

man talk in the language of St. Giles's, or to hear him one moment make some very judicious and pertinent remark, and the next utter some puerile conceit. Propriety of sentiment, propriety of words, that is, propriety of character, should be studied with a most minute attention, for the true critic would far rather behold the same person an infant and an old man in the same play, than be pestered with characteristic incongruities.

Let it not be supposed however, that we have a malevolent wish to blast the well-earned laurels of Mrs. Cowley. Her comedy, though defective in these instances, has great merit in others. Indeed her particular excellence in this, as in all her writings, is a brilliancy of thought and an agreeable playfulness of imagination, which are the true characteristics of genius, and though she never has, and it may safely be predicted, never will add to her performances the superior pleasure of a well conceived, strong, and connected fable, yet she has made large amends by lively dialogue, spirited scenes, and happy unexpected turns of wit. It must likewise be observed, the little plots or intrigues of the detached scenes in her comedies have frequently a very good effect.

On Monday the 25th of the same month was performed at Drury-Lane, a comedy, called *VARIETY*, the author unknown. This piece had every theatrical assistance; it was acted by the best comedians, and in the best part of the season. That it was not damned is a proof of the lenity of the audience; that it was with difficulty dragged through its nine nights with these advantages, is an internal evidence of its own imbecility. The character of Morely is an imitation of *Le Philosophe Marie* by Mr. Nericault Desfouches, a French comic poet of great excellence. There is so little to praise in *Variety*, that had it been consistent with our plan, it would have remained unnoticed here.

The next and last comedy this season was the *WALLOONS*, written by Mr. Cumberland, and played at Covent Garden for the first time on the 20th of April. The *Walloons*, though it has not yet been published, has so many obvious peculiarities, that there is no difficulty in giving a general character of the piece. And first, it is an absolute solecism to call it a comedy, for its fable is deeply tragical; though it must be confessed Melpomene is placed in a very ridiculous attitude. Daggerly, of whom Jack the Painter seems to have been the prototype, is taken off the stage to be hanged; and Sullivan, a still more atrocious, more insufferable villain, is brought back to undergo the same fate. In the first night's representation indeed, he was permitted to escape, but this was so flagrant a breach of all poetical justice, it could not be endured. Characters so diabolically, so steadily, and so consistently wicked as that of Sullivan, if any such characters exist, are by no means fit to be so publicly held up to view: they are dangerous, they are disgusting, they are degrading: and how Mr. Cumberland could think of letting such a detestable being go off triumphant, which he at first did, is truly astonishing. No man who had ever observed the warmth of benevolence which is so predominant in this Author's *West Indian*, and *Fashionable Lover*, could have supposed it possible

possible for him to have written such a character or such a piece. The elder Belfield in his first comedy, it is true, might claim some distant kindred with Sullivan, though to Mr. Cumberland's praise be it spoken, it is a very distant one indeed. There is likewise a great similarity between his comedy of the Brothers and this of the Walloons: the Dangles and the Doves are of the same family, but the descendants have greatly degenerated. The young sailor too is an illegitimate son of old Ironsides. The grouse of characters in this play with few exceptions, is a collection of villains, fools, and prostitutes. The girl that Daggerly introduces to Sir Solomon's family is so shameless a hussy, that she goes off the stage for purposes which no person can mistake, with three or four (we quote from memory) different men. Her language, on the first night, was almost as indecent as her conduct; they are both still sufficiently flagitious. How the Author of this piece, who has long been accustomed to the refined and elegant manners of polite life, and who has had much experience too as a dramatic writer, how he could suppose such a fable, such sentiments, such characters, and such manners, as the comedy of the Walloons exhibits, would give pleasure to any person whom he could have an ambition to please, is perfectly unaccountable. Imbecility is not, however, in this case as in the last, a characteristic of the play; had the same degree of strength and genius been employed upon an innocent and agreeable subject, the piece would have met, because it would have merited, indubitable applause.

The original three act operas of last season were, The CARNIVAL of VENICE, the BANDITTI, and the FAIR AMERICAN, but as neither of these have been printed little can be said of them. The first was the production of Mr. Tickle, the author of Anticipation, a pamphlet that had raised great expectations in the public respecting his dramatic abilities, more especially as he had married the sister of Mrs. Sheridan, consequently enjoyed the benefit of Mr. Sheridan's advice and assistance, whose fame among the votaries of Thalia, ranks the highest in the kingdom. The Carnival of Venice by no means answered the high hopes of those, who had made the wit and satire of Anticipation a standard for their opinions. Let us do the Author the justice, however, to say, that the lyric part was far superior to the unmeaning rhymes that are usually composed for music.

The Banditti, written by Mr. O'Keefe, was played only one night, the sense of the audience (which was universal indignation at such an unmeaning farago of quibbles* and conundrums) was entirely

* Take the following as a specimen :

My fine little woman well met
For supper pray what can I get ?
I've search'd the house round
And *nothing* I've found
But *something* is better to eat.

entirely consistent with the true spirit of liberal and impartial criticism. How this heap of inconsistencies came to be again imposed upon the town under another name, and how the town were induced to run after this disgrace to literature and the Theatre, may afford subject of enquiry hereafter.

The foregoing operat were both brought out before Christmas; the *Fair American* was not so fortunate. It was not performed till the 18th of May, a time of the year when there are little hopes for an Author. It was however exceedingly lucky in one circumstance: it was played at Drury Lane Theatre for the first time on the very day when the news arrived of the great naval victory obtained by Admiral Rodney over the French fleet in the West Indies; and one of the principal characters in the opera being an Admiral, there happened a prodigious number of things in the dialogue that were a propos to the moment of joy and victory; and were applauded by a happy audience, who seemed incapable of expressing their high sense of gratitude, when any thing complimentary was said of naval officers or affairs. This gave an appearance of vast success and excessive merit to the piece, that it neither deserved, nor had strength to maintain. Except some pleasing language from the young lady who gave the title to the opera, there was little of the Author's to commend. Admiral Dreadnought, though he speaks the very language of Smollet, is a feeble transcript of Commodore Trumion. Mr. Bale, whom the critics of the day cried up as a wonderful effort of originality, is an imitation, and in many places a literal one, of Lump in Shadwell's comedy called *A True Widow*. Mr. Pilon, the Author of the *Fair American*, seems not to place a sufficient dependence on his own genius: he has even condescended to imitate the equivoues of Mr. O'Keefe, instead of endeavouring to engage the passions, and follow nature, truth, and probability. Let this censure be understood as it is meant. Mr. O'Keefe as a farce writer has great (were it not for his obscenity, we might say wonderful) merit; but must never rank any higher: at least, not till his taste and judgment are exceedingly reformed. Mr. Pilon therefore, or any other Author, who in the more elevated species of the drama, shall debase his writings by continually straining at puns, quibbles, and equivoues, must not expect criticism should contaminate herself by approving what is a disgrace to the poet, the audience, and the age. Mr. Pilon has occasionally, both in the piece under present consideration, and in others, displayed powers that may lead us to hope for better things, when he shall suffer care, industry, and correction to associate with genius.

VERTUMNUS and POMONA was an operatical after-piece brought out at Covent Garden, that was only played three nights. It was deficient in humour and incident but the poetry was above mediocrity.

In which the Author anxious lest his Readers should not understand this very excellent joke, printed, as we have done, the words something and nothing in Italics.

The words of the songs were printed.

The new farces of this season were the **DIVORCE**, the **POSITIVE MAN**, and **RETALIATION**.

The first was written by Mr. Jackman, and was performed at Drury Lane November 1781. The best thing that can be said of this is, that it contains a great deal of farcical humour, and was most excellently played: but the Author forgot himself strangely, when in the play-bills he called it a comedy of two acts.

The Positive Man was written by Mr. O'Keefe, and played at Covent Garden on the 16th of March. There is a scene between Grog and Stern in this farce, that would do honour to any author, and makes every man who compares it with some other of Mr. O'Keefe's writings, lament that his abilities have taken such an improper turn. The remainder of the Positive Man is very—very indifferent.

Retaliation was not brought out till the 7th of May, therefore we may conclude, that the Author gained more fame than wealth, by this production of his Muse. It was played at Covent Garden, and very well received, the incidents were laughable, and there were some excellent strokes of wit in the dialogue.

The pantomime called Lun's Ghost at Drury Lane, was only a selection of old tricks and old scenes. The Choice of Harlequin at the other House, was remarkable for a good moral, and a superb pageant.

In our next Number we propose to give an account of the Performers at both Houses, and their respective merits.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

WHEN we turn our eyes to the political state of this country in the present moment, the first reflection that occurs, is a painful comparison of what it so lately was, with what it now is. In February 1763, a definitive treaty of peace was concluded between his Britannic Majesty, the King of France, and the King of Spain, by which the whole continent of North America on this side the Mississippi, together with the adjacent islands, was ceded and confirmed to the first of these powers; and by which the prosperity and greatness of England seemed to be secured for ages. In February 1783, another treaty separates the North American Colonies from the Mother-country for ever; and thereby undermines the foundations of British opulence and grandeur. History does not afford an instance of such rapid declension. In no other empire has humiliation so quickly succeeded to glory.

How far a mild exercise of authority, might have prolonged the connection between the Colonies and the Parent-state, it is impossible to determine. Interest, and those various antipathies which gradually spring up between the inhabitants of different countries, must have effected a separation sooner or later. The pride of affluence too, must have given birth to the pride of independence: and the high-spirited Americans, in process of time, would have been as ready to shake off the slackened reins of a feeble and distant government, as they were to take arms on the first appearances of oppression. In reality, there is not an example of any state that was able to maintain a lasting authority over distant dependencies, while it permitted them to enjoy a regular and established system of freedom. The severe jurisdiction of the Romans over their colonies, is recorded and authenticated beyond a doubt: the jealousy, and the despotism of the Spaniards, the Portuguese, and even the Dutch, over their settlements, are known to all the world.

The British constitution does not admit of that steady, that uniform, and vigorous conduct, which subdues nations, and maintains conquests. Different factions, and different interests, perpetually impede the wheels of government. If the ambition of the Monarch points to war; the avarice of Merchants points to peace: and the faction that is not employed in the administration of government, are loud and violent in their censures of every measure that is adopted and pursued by the Ministers of the King. Such being the frame of the British government, its power, though great, is rarely brought to one centre of percussion. However paradoxical it may appear, it may yet be confidently affirmed, that the glory and the liberty of this nation united, were the circumstances, which prepared the way for the revolt of the Americans; so true it is in politics as well as in morals, that *Pride cometh before a fall*. The glorious successes of a fortunate war, inspired in the English nation

nation a spirit of haughty insolence, which appeared in rudeness abroad, and in licentiousness at home. Certain unjustifiable, because illegal stretches of prerogative, roused this spirit into a resistance of government. Ministry were obliged to recede from their pretensions. The most daring libellers escaped with impunity; and the most profligate of men braved the threats of the court, in confidence of the favour of the people. This example of spirit was not without its effects across the Atlantic. It was evident that administration was unable to oppose the stream of a popular torrent; and that a combination of the subjects was able to resist the encroachments of the crown. The Americans were as tenacious of their property; as high-spirited as Englishmen; and they had an equal right to freedom. With the example just mentioned before their eyes, they resolved to vindicate their rights, and refused to be taxed, because they were not represented in the British Parliament. But had the power of Britain been exerted in time, with wisdom and vigour, there is not a doubt that the American revolt would have been crushed in the bud, and the authority of the Mother-country over the Colonies more firmly rivetted than ever. If the British government had been purely monarchical, this undoubtedly would have happened. The jealousy inherent in all absolute monarchies, would have quashed the first tendency to tumult and insurrection. The liberty and independence of North America have therefore sprung from the liberty of England: and the enlightened natives of that continent, however they may reprobate particular measures and particular men, must ever revere that constitution whence their forefathers derived just ideas of the dignity and privileges of human nature; that constitution which cherished in their breasts the seeds of resistance; and which restrained the hand of power which would have crushed their infant state. Is there a doubt that the cabals of faction, according to the language of some; or the friends of liberty, according to that of others, in the British Senate, spirited up the Americans to revolt, by boldly defending their cause, by calling on them to defend their rights, by insinuating that they were less than men if they did not, and by encouraging their belief that more than two-thirds of Englishmen were friends to American independence? It is true, that the British Cabinet were shamefully ignorant both of the strength, and the dispositions of the Americans; and their contempt of so formidable an enemy, betrayed a total inattention to the nature of the passion for liberty, and also to the history of the world. But still they would have acted with greater celerity and promptitude, as well as with greater vigour, had they not been apprehensive of the clamours of faction, and of the imputation of tyranny and oppression.

As civil dissensions prevented Ministry from exerting the power of the nation in proper time, so they also hindered them from exerting it with effect. Intimidated by the cabals and combinations of party, Ministers were not at liberty to act with decision. It was their first object to sooth the discontents of opposition, and by humouring great families, to secure their own power. Hence the great machine of government seemed to want an animating soul.

Commanding officers by sea and land: men in all the different departments of administration did whatever seemed good in their own eyes. The most flagrant instances of misconduct were passed over with impunity. A fear of giving offence produced a connivance at the timidity of Keppel, the indecision of Clinton, the folly or treachery of Howe. At no period of the British history did the valour of individuals shine with brighter lustre: nor had Britain ever made greater preparations for war by sea and land. But a presiding mind was wanting to compose the jarring elements of this great mass; to establish harmony, by confirming subordination and discipline; and to call forth into exertion virtue and ability wherever they were to be found, without regard to political interests or connections. Such a mind it was difficult to find among a divided people. There was not a *Cæsar* to ride in the tempest, and to rule the storm. Yet still the loss of America is ultimately chargeable, not on the want of courage or of wisdom in the British cabinet, so much as on that free constitution which nourishes factions and divisions, which discovers the designs of government to our natural enemies, which distracts the minds of the servants of the crown, and renders them more attentive to the means of preserving their power, than to the most proper measures for maintaining the honour of the nation. For, as on the one hand it is possible that a transcendent genius may arise fitted to quell the tumults of faction, and to drown the clamours of party in the general voice of applause and acclamation: so, on the other it is certain that any degree of spirit and conduct in an absolute state, has an advantage over an equal degree of spirit and conduct in a free government. And the British Ministry might have subdued their foes in America, if they had not been obliged to encounter their enemies in England.

The gallant Earl Cornwallis, unsupported by Sir Henry Clinton, met with the fate of Burgoyne, deserted by Sir William Howe. This fatal disaster decided the fortune of the British empire. A majority of the House of Commons, dispirited and mortified at repeated discomfitures, and the continual waste of public money, resolved to abandon offensive war in America, despairing of being able to reduce the Colonies by force. The brilliant successes of Sir George Rodney, the intrepid and glorious defence of Gibraltar by General Elliott, and the resolute and obstinate bravery of the fleet under the command of Sir Edward Hughes, have more than counterbalanced the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, and give ground to imagine that, if a change of Administration had not taken place in March last, the nation would thereby have been encouraged to have tried at least another campaign in America, especially as there appeared in the New England provinces the dawning of a disposition to return to the mother country. Or, if active and offensive war had been abandoned by land, powerful armaments at sea might have recovered, at least, a part of North America to England, by maintaining the full sovereignty of the ocean. But the Rockingham Administration, in their eagerness for peace threw all away; and presented us an object of contempt to the astonished nations. Great Britain, with her arms bound behind her cries *peravi* to the American States and the United Pro-

Provinces, and acknowledges the Independence of the former, without stipulating any terms for the mother country, or, even for those constant loyalists who had preserved in the midst of many perils their allegiance to the Crown of England. The Americans and the Dutch despised the mean advances of the British Cabinet, and refused to treat separately from their allies. Providence called the Marquis of Rockingham from a scene of action to which his virtues indeed, but not his abilities,—were equal. A nobleman of great parts, who had declared that *the sun of Britain's glory would set, whenever Independence should be granted to America*, the Earl of Shelburne, was raised to the important office of First Lord of the Treasury, diffusing hopes to the American loyalists, and to great numbers of the natives and subjects of Britain, that he would employ his talents and his authority in some noble efforts to restore either the whole, or a part of North America to a constitutional and honourable dependance on the mother country. He had been loud in his censures of Lord North's Administration; and he was particularly vehement against him for neglecting to form alliances, which might counterbalance that confederacy which threatened even the national existence of Britain. It was therefore expected by many that his Lordship would stir up such commotions in Europe as would withdraw the assistance of France from America, and leave the revolted Colonies to make the best terms they could for themselves, with the mother country. As some men hoped that Lord Shelburne would prosecute the war, so there were others who were afraid of it. The event has proved how groundless were the hopes of the one party, and the fears of the other. The Administration of the present Minister has been distinguished by continual, and rather eager negotiations for peace. The grand object for which France drew the sword being attained, a kingdom so renowned for political wisdom, could not long hesitate to ratify and confirm by the solemnities of a treaty of peace the advantages she had contributed to gain over England by the force of her arms. American Independence; a right to fish on the banks of New-foundland; and a participation in a free commerce with the North American Colonies: These advantages promote the interests of France in a two-fold ratio; they not only add directly to her wealth and power; but also weaken proportionally the hands of Great Britain her most formidable rival. The force of England was every day increasing and coming forward, with that effect which results from unanimity, into full exertion: while that of France had begun to manifest symptoms of decline. Jealousies too had begun to appear between the Congress and the Provinces, and also between the Congress and their *great and good ally*. The contingencies of war and the fluctuations and unaccountable transitions of popular assemblies, impatient of oppression, disappointed in their hopes, and ever fond of change and revolution: These circumstances determined the policy of France to seize the glorious opportunity of aggrandizing the House of Bourbon, by formally ratifying the downfall of the British empire. Spain, having obtained concessions more injurious to the honour than the power of England, and having

ing been exhausted by the exertions of war, was easily induced to follow the example of France. Holland is left to shift for herself, and to ruminate on the folly of preferring a dependency on France, to an honourable connection with Britain. By a strange consecration of circumstances the accession of the Dutch to the confederacy against Great Britain, has perhaps, tended rather to accelerate than to impede a general peace. France connived at the possession of Trincomalé in the island of Ceylon by the English. This connivance was a valuable concession in the estimation of England. Thus have the Dutch been sacrificed as inferiors often are, to the policy and ambition of a more powerful ally. The fortress, harbour, and bay of Trincomalé, is the only acquisition that Great Britain has made in the present war. Whether the peace with France and Spain be not on the whole as favourable to Britain as it could have been expected to be in the present circumstances of this nation: or, whether it would not have been wiser as well as a bolder policy to have continued a naval war, and harrassed, and wearied the Colonists into terms more honourable to Britain, are questions concerning which we pretend not to decide. We give the Minister credit for the secrecy with which he has conducted his negotiations, and for the attention he has shewn to the interests of commerce and manufactures. This attention has appeared in his resisting all pretensions on the part of France to a monopoly of any part of the produce of America; in his insisting invariably for the possession of Trincomalé, so important to the commerce and navigation of Great Britain in the East; and in his efforts to remove those barbarous and mutual restrictions of commerce between this country and France, which may be considered as the most foolish and constant hostilities in times of profound peace. The attention that has been shewn to Lord Shelburne's propositions on this head by the Count of Vergennes, is a proof of the enlightened and liberal policy of France; and the history of the present peace, will mark the progress of humanity and refinement in Europe. The proofs of ability which the Minister has exhibited on this important occasion are not however able to obliterate from the mind of every Britain, that America is lost to England. From the first commotions in the Netherlands in the reign of Phillip II. of Spain, to the peace of Munster 1648, a space intervened, of more than 80 years. In that long period, Spain still maintained her pretensions to Sovereignty over the seventeen provinces of the circle of Burgundy; and at the peace of Munster she retained her authority over ten of these provinces, as the price of Independence accorded to seven. Is it owing to the superior sagacity of Britain, and that she discerned the time when it was wisdom to yield, that she has not preserved authority over so much as one of her provinces? Or is it rather owing to the unsteady nature of a popular government, and to the limited views of merchants, and even subjects more honourably distinguished, who do not, like princes, look forward to the glory of the monarchy and crown, but are disposed to avoid present inconveniences, and to grasp at present advantages? But concerning these things posterity will decide: and posterity only will be competent judges.

For

For time alone will prove the wisdom or the folly of the present treaty. If Britain shall sink, like Venice, from the sovereignty of the ocean, into a state of insignificance, historians will say, it would have been better that she had exerted every nerve, availed herself of the contingencies of time and fortune, and refused to surrender her authority but with her national existence. If, on the contrary, her power shall encrease with encreasing commerce, speculative politicians will admire her wisdom in contracting in time, the limits of her empire.

It is matter of consolation to England, that, as the early emancipation of America arose out of the freedom of the British constitution; so, this emancipation will in its turn contribute to support and prolong that liberty from which it sprung. Had the reluctant Americans been subdued by force, the sons of Britain, would, in the end, have found more matter of grief than of triumph in so fatal a victory. The patronage, the property, the power of the crown would have exceeded all bounds of moderation; and, together with so sturdy an instrument as a standing American army, would have been able to set every species of controul provided by the constitution at defiance. The liberties of Englishmen thus preserved, are a stem that may yet bear the noblest fruit. Liberty, which is but another word for justice, secures property; the security of property encourages industry; and industry, the world begins to learn at length, not extended dominion, is the great source of national wealth and grandeur.

The effects of the revolt and emancipation of North America, have already been important: and they will continue to have a mighty influence on the history of the world. The successful struggle of the Americans for Independence, although not the origin, was a circumstance which encouraged that demand, which has been made by so considerable a portion of the people of England for a reformation of the constitution. The Independence of Ireland followed that of the Colonies, as an effect follows a cause. The Americans and Irish having successfully claimed the power of sovereigns, the Scotch nation ventured at length to think of arming itself in its own defence, and to claim the privileges of loyal subjects.

The influence of these revolutions has extended itself even to India; and the hardy sons of North America will alleviate the oppressions of the effeminate inhabitants of the east. The British government begins to be sensible that justice and moderation are the most permanent foundations of power: and in this belief, they have determined to frame new regulations for the relief of the oppressed natives of Hindostan. In other nations as well as in Britain, there are symptoms of a rising spirit of liberty among the people, and of philanthropy, or at least the semblance of it among the rulers.

The great revolution in America and in Europe, that has operated these effects, hath not yet spent its force. It will be an interesting speculation to mark its influence on commerce; on sciences and arts; on the genius of nations; the balance of power; and the general happiness of the world. To observe and to trace this various influence

influence will naturally form a part of the political speculations in THE ENGLISH REVIEW. And as it will be proper, in this part of our undertaking, to mark the influence of politicks and commerce on literature; so it will also be proper to mark the influence of literature, on politicks and commerce. Trade and navigation will be more extended than they have ever been. This will promote a spirit of enquiry, and the encrease of knowledge. *Multi pertransibunt et augbitur scientia* (*). And may we not hope that a general intercourse among nations, and juster notions of men and of things, will tend to wear out antipathies and narrow prejudices, and induce different tribes of mortals, to co-operate by the arts of peace towards the great end of alleviating the miseries, and multiplying the enjoyments of human life?

We should now proceed to consider the views of the great European powers that have been neutral during the late contest, and to connect in this manner, the history and politicks of Britain with those of the Continent. But these, and other particulars, the length of this article obliges us to postpone to a future number.

* Lord Bacon's motto (under the figure of a ship) prefixed to his book *de augmentis scientiarum*.

THE

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For FEBRUARY, 1783.

ART. I. *The History of France, from the Commencement of the Reign of Lewis XIII. to the General Peace of Munster.* Together with the interesting Events in the History of Europe during that Period. By Walter Anderson, D.D. Vols. IV. and V. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. boards. Robson.

THE Volumes now before us contain a very memorable portion of the history of France. They open with the regency of Mary of Medicis, and with a state of the condition of the parties which were then established. The disgrace and retirement of the Duke of Sully, the double alliance of France and Spain, the discontents occasioned by it, the insurrections of the French nobility, and the majority of Lewis XIII, then engage the attention of the Author. He next explains the disgusts which arose between Mary of Medicis and Lewis XIII; unfolds the dissensions of the Papists and the Protestants; and enters upon a narration of the civil war which they excited. A noble career now presents itself to him in the administration of Cardinal Richelieu. No period in the annals of any nation is more marked and curious, more various and political. Having treated this fruitful subject, the Author describes the death of Lewis XIII; and exhibits a short account of the minority of his successor. He then concludes his work with some general observations relative to the state of manners, the progress of refinement, and the advancement of science and taste during the period under his review.

While the grandeur however of the subject treated by Dr. Anderson, attracts our admiration, we are sorry to observe that his execution of his task is by no means able and fortunate. That a clergyman in an obscure village of Scotland, should undertake any portion whatever of the French history.

REV. Vol. I. Feb. 1783. G

history, may to many appear to be romantic. For a thousand sources of information familiar to Frenchmen, must, doubtless, escape the curiosity of any foreigner. Indeed, in such a situation there is but one apology which can be accepted by the public. The possession of high and uncommon abilities will give a full sanction to an undertaking of this, or of any kind. For topics the most difficult and the most impracticable, may receive superlative advantages in the hands of men of genius. This apology, however, cannot be made for Dr. Anderson; and his courage in venturing into the labyrinth of French history cannot be commended.

Great natural discernment, and much knowledge of the world are necessary to the historian; but in these respects Dr. Anderson is surprisingly defective. He removes not the veil which covers the cabals and intrigues which are so frequent in the Court of France. His delineations of eminent personages are without likeness or character. The nice discrimination of circumstances, the happy details of the effects of jealousy and pride, caprice and emulation, the infinite importance of the French ladies in affairs of state, and the power of trifling incidents in the production of signal events, no where distinguish his narration. His mind is neither piercing nor capacious. The dignity of the historic manner is sometimes imitated by him with a degree of success; but his page is often deformed with a giddiness and frivolity which disturb the gravity of his reader. He relates tragical transactions, and matters of little moment in the same tone. He does not agitate his reader, and never awakens distress and sympathy. He seems fixed in a sullen apathy, and keeps himself at an awful distance from the power of the passions. The art of converting his narration into a whole, of giving it a due proportion of parts, of being circumstantial in great affairs, of passing with brevity over trivial occurrences, and of relieving the attention by the interspersion of anecdotes, is unknown to him. His accounts of battles are almost unintelligible; not because he is profound in the military art; but because he understood imperfectly what he had undertaken to describe. When he at any time touches upon the progress of the French government he is lost in darkness; and, like many writers of higher name, he gives details about the feudal system, which only prove that he did not comprehend it.

Amidst these strictures, however, which candour and our duty to the public extort from us, it is proper to lay before our readers, a specimen, from which they may judge for themselves concerning the ability of this Author. For this

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purpose, we shall extract a few pages in the beginning or entrance of his work.

* The immature age of Lewis XIII. disqualified him for government, and aggravated the loss which the French state sustained by the violent death of his illustrious father, Henry IV. It seemed that fortune sported with the grandeur of kingdoms, as well as with that of particular men; when France, elevated to the condition of being arbiter of Europe, found a sudden and an inauspicious change in her domestic circumstances, and had reason to dread the eruption of faction, and the various distresses incident to a *minority*, and the conversion of her government into a regency.

† The claim of the Queen-mother, Mary de Medicis, to the regency of the kingdom, was indisputable; but some limitations of her authority might have been insisted upon by the Princes of the blood, consistently with the usages of the monarchy *. The tuition of the young King's person was still considered as separable from the regent's office, and a distinct branch of the administration. Former precedents had not established the rule upon this head: and no provision being made before the death of the late King, with respect to it, the parliament of Paris could only pronounce a legal decision of the controversy. In the agitated state of the government, the judgment of the counsellors could not be relied on. Their fears and their party views, as well as their political principles, might divide their suffrages, or induce them to favour the pretensions of the Princes of the blood to a share in the regency †. To obviate this apparent danger, a precipitate and bold step was taken by some partizans of Mary de Medicis. In concert with the Chancellor Sillery, and the President Seguier, a convention of the parliament was demanded by the court. While several companies of the guards beset the streets leading to the convent of the Augustines, the place of its meeting, the Duke of Espernon entered the hall, and required the counsellors, in a commanding tone, to pass an act for the regency of the Queen-mother. Upon the Duke's retiring, in shew of respect to the court, the motion, supported by Guelle the Procurator General, was agreed to; though in silence, and without any form of deliberation. To supply this defect, and give more authority to the important deed of the magistrates, the young King went, next day, in solemn procession, with the Queen-mother, the Princes, peers, and nobles of the court, to the chamber of parliament. In the constitution of his bed of justice, the act of regency was more formally ratified, not only by the unanimous consent of all the prelates and peers then present, but by their subscriptions being annexed to it. Some hesitation in their procedure arose from the expressions inserted in the record of the act; which was said to be *according to the decree of the parliament* the former day. This appeared an approbation of the privilege of that court, to appoint or ordain the regent of the kingdom. The Chancellor, as by mistake, passed over this clause in the reading

* Henault, Abbregé Chron. oct. edit. p. 392.

† Gramondi Historiarum Galliae, lib. 8. fol. edit. p. 4. *Mémoires de Bassompierre*, duodec. edit. tom. 1. p. 297.

of the act; and the counsellors the more easily acquiesced in this omission, as the register bore the transcript of it: so difficult to be adjusted are some points in every political system. Sovereign and absolute power is not easily subjected to legal forms; and yet these are found necessary to preserve it.

' This establishment of Mary de Medicis in the regency, without opposition or restraint of her authority, may be ascribed to the general grief for Henry's fatal exit *. While, for some days, his body, marked with its mortal wound, was laid out in the Louvre, and the tears of his widow Queen, and of his son, not ten years of age, were seen to flow; all movements of faction were repressed. Parties, the most opposite to one another, involved in the affecting scene, concurred in testifying their reverence of the admired and beloved character of their deceased King, by demonstrations of allegiance and attachment to the relicts of his family †. In vain did the Count de Soissons, when he came to Paris, complain that, though the second prince of the blood, he had not been called to the meeting of parliament which settled the regency, and alledge that the suffrages were informally collected. He was regarded as one who uttered the indecent language of party, at a time when all true Frenchmen deplored the calamity of the state, and united to preserve the public peace. It was presumed, by the generality of the nobles, that the administration of Henry's consort would be mild, and accommodated to gain all parties; and, though not conducted with the ability and glory that distinguished his reign, that it might be productive of similar contentment and tranquillity to the kingdom.

' The part acted by the Duke of Sully, in the day of the catastrophe of his beloved master, testified the transports of his grief and indignation, more than the fortitude natural to him, or the recollection and composure adequate to the occasion. Impressed, as others were, with the belief that Henry's assassination was not the act of one enthusiast, but the dark blow of a malignant party, who were ready to execute like vengeance on his intimate friends; he drew together a large retinue of horsemen ‡, but stopped in his way to the Louvre, when he met Bossompierre, Colonel-General of the Swiss, attended with a similar train, and, as if in apprehension of the assault of his enemies, retreated within the walls of the Bastile. Though messages were sent to him from the Queen, he remained distrustful, and did not present himself in the palace till the next day. This instance of his behaviour, which arose only from the confusion of his spirits, was improved, by his adversaries, to lessen him in the esteem of Mary de Medicis. The public ferment, inevitable in such a conjuncture, was instigated by the examination and trial of the execrable parricide, Ravailiac. Though hardened against every torture, he could be forced to no confession of his having accomplices in his horrid deed; the va-

* *Memoires du Duc de Bohan*, duodec. edit. *Discours sur la mort de Henry, le Grand*, p. 6.

† *Mem. de Sully*, oct. edit. liv. 28, p. 27.

‡ *Mem. de Bossompierre*, *ibid.* De Sully *ibid.*

ness informations given with respect to his intercourse with suspected people, cherished the contrary opinion, and the vague surmises and accusations, always prevalent in an emergency of this nature, tended to propagate it among the multitude. The College of the Sorbonne concurred with the Parliament of Paris, in condemning the book of Mariana, a Spanish Jesuite, upon the nature and extent of regal authority, and the Pope's supremacy over it*. It is said that, in the first edition of this piece, James Clement, the murderer of Henry III. was called the *Æternum Galliae decus*. Bellarmine's treatise on the pontifical authority was also stigmatised, but, at the intercession of the Pope's nuncio, it was not committed to the flames.

For some time, it was not perceptible that the Queen-regent meant to advance any particular favourite into the ministry, or make a change in that establishment of it which subsisted in the latter period of Henry's reign. Her study only appeared to be, to render her sway in the government gracious and acceptable to all the courtiers, to prevent disputes and contests for precedency among the princes of the blood, and to impress the people with sentiments of the lenity, and equity of her administration. In conformity to this aim, councils of state were held almost every day, and the princes of the blood, and the late King's ministers, regularly called to them †. To alleviate the public burdens, above fifty pecuniary edicts, destined to be the fund for Henry's expedition into Germany, were ordered to be abrogated by the parliament. To obviate the fears that might be entertained among the Protestants, about the maintenance of their religious and civil privileges, a confirmation of the edict of Nantz was published in the most ample form. In the deliberation with regard to the fulfilling of Henry's engagements with his allies abroad, such a resolution was taken, as appeared respectful to his memory, and the honour of the state, and, at the same time, consistent with the security of the kingdom, in its present adverse circumstances ‡. While the army, on the side of Italy, was ordered to be disbanded, it was judged proper to keep on foot ten thousand of the forces in Champagne, on account of the disputed succession to the dutchy of Cleves. The army of the States of Holland having already advanced to the siege of Juliers, the capital of the dutchy, which the Imperialists had seized, it was determined to assist the former in reducing it; and the command of the auxiliary troops was given to the Marshal la Châtre. This afforded some prospect that like succours might be obtained by the other confederates of the state.

It was soon discovered, that these political resolutions of the Queen-regent, and her council, flowed neither from unanimity, nor any determined maxims of government. The constitution of the ministry being yet unfixed, the procedure of the court was rendered, by the mutual jealousy of parties, casual and precarious. Until the interesting contest was decided, about the distribution of the principal posts and honours of the state; expedients only were a-

* De Serres; English supplement by Grimstone, p. 2.

† Gramondt, hist. ibid. p. 14. ‡ Ibid. p. 12. Bassompierre, ibid.

adopted, instead of a plan of administration*. Beside other apparent obstructions to union, there were two which operated with particular force. One of them arose from an apprehension conceived by the late King's servants, and especially by the Duke of Sully and his friends, that Mary de Medicis secretly intended a change both of measures and ministers; and that, having already formed a choice of them in her mind, she only waited for the subsiding of faction to declare it. The other related to the expected appearance of the Prince of Condé at court; whose rank, as first prince of the blood, entitled him to a pre-eminent degree of honour and authority in the council of state; when now, in the King's nonage, a regency was established. His flight from the court of Henry IV. into Italy, howsoever animadverted upon, could only be deemed a weakness, arising from jealousy of that prince's amorous passion for his consort, and not from any disloyal, or sinister intention. To the Queen-regent, who had incited him to this course, he could appear, in no respect, culpable; but rather might plead the merit of suffering in a cause that nearly concerned her peace. It was a special proof, how much the vigour of the principle of loyalty was increased by Henry's popular reign, that no motion was made for supporting the claim of the first prince of the blood to participate in the regency; and that even his presence was supposed unnecessary to its establishment in the person of the Queen-mother. The parties, however, still continued fluctuating in their hopes and aims, and no decided superiority of one above another could take place, until it was known what influence the Prince of Condé's appearance might have on their arrangement, and the stability of the administration.

* This prince wanted not ambition to aspire to the honours becoming his rank; but the vigour of spirit, and the decisive judgment, requisite to act any signal part in the political scene, were weakly mingled in his character. Conscious of his importance, he could make the shew of claiming what was due to him; but he was neither bold nor persevering in the pursuit of his object†. From Chateauroux he came to Paris, accompanied with fifteen hundred nobles, or gentry; a train of partizans, sufficient to have created an alarm to the Queen-regent. But no man is formidable, who is undetermined in his purposes. He wanted direction as to the line he was to take, and the party he ought to espouse; a circumstance always unfavourable in an intricate or embroiled scene. Party leaders, when capable, seldom give candid advice; and, if this happens, the studied embellishments of their adopted systems are apt to perplex the most discerning, and mislead the less judicious. The conferences which the Prince of Condé is said to have held on the state of affairs, first with the Duke of Sully, and then with the Duke of Bouillon, had no other effect but to throw him into ambiguity and suspense. According to the Memoirs of the former, after he was convinced, and fully determined to act, in consequence of the arguments Sully used with him, all the conceptions of their

* Mem. de Sully, *ibid.* De Serres, *ibid.*

† Bassompierre, *ibid.* p. 301. Mem. de Sully, lib. 28. p. 52.

propriety were suddenly overset by Bouillon, only demonstrating to him, that they were calculated to support the party interest of the old minister of state *. This politician proceeded then to prove it to be Condé's highest advantage, to resume the late connection his family had with the Protestants; which, though interrupted by his education in the Catholic faith, might be accounted a natural and hereditary one to him, and could not fail to advance his authority in the state. As the Prince's principles corresponded not with this political doctrine, he remained in hesitation about his conduct, until the Queen-regent's gratuities, and more liberal promises to him, disposed him to be pacific and obsequious to the system of administration that prevailed. Beside a large pension, a present was made him of the Hotel de Gondi; which cost the Queen forty thousand crowns.

With regard to composition and language, Dr. Anderson has not much to boast. He is not always either clear or perspicuous; and he never rises into eloquence. The structure and purity of the English tongue have not been attended to by him with sufficient care. His consultation of the French historians has led him often into Gallicisms; and he abounds in Scottish idioms. From the respect which we bear to the elegance of our language, we shall offer a few specimens of his impurities.

1. 'He is said to have got a plain *signification* of his danger.'
2. 'The king had ordered him to *be* in custody.'
3. 'Destitute of heirs as *himself* was.'
4. 'Be better *advised* for the future.'
5. 'The picture *evidenced* in the Duke of Rohan's character and conduct.'
6. 'The *inflammation* of minds, attendant on the denunciation of war.'
7. 'The deliberation about it was now *cut short*.'
8. 'Balked in the payment of his pensions.'
9. 'The small experience he had acquired in the *campaigns of armies*.'
10. 'After the *access* of a pain in his side.'
11. 'The severe curb of Richelieu's government was of course *fallen off*.'
12. 'It is unnecessary to *narrate*.'

To this work there is prefixed a Dedication to Lord Viscount Stormont, dated at Edinburgh in December 1781, when that nobleman was one of the Secretaries of State. In this Dedication there is a sentiment so absurdly singular, that we cannot but take notice of it. 'The people of Britain sensible of their obligations to the LORD CHIEF JUSTICE OF ENGLAND, the enlightened GUARDIAN of the laws, beheld with pleasure a SECRETARY OF STATE so nearly related to him, and distinguished by similar accomplishments.' We doubt not the sincerity of Dr. Anderson in this compliment; and if he had given it

* Gramondé hist. *ibid*, p. 11.

in his own person, we should not have taken the trouble to have held it out to observation. The sentiment, however, as imputed to the people of Britain is widely erroneous. Is it necessary to inform the Authors of Scotland, that no Englishman can easily forget, that Lord Mansfield during the course of his long life has been uniformly the zealous champion of prerogative; and that he has exerted and prostituted his abilities to undermine the trial by a jury, and the liberty of the press; those sacred and formidable bulwarks which support the glorious fabric of the English government?

ART. II. *The School for Scandal*, a Comedy; as it is performed at the Theatre-Royal in Drury-lane. Dublin, 1781.

THE public are here presented with an Irish edition of Mr. Sheridan's *School for Scandal*, which has so long been expected to be published by the Author himself. Why this has not yet been done, it is not our province to determine. We think ourselves entitled, however, to give it a place in our Review, as every publication which appears in our sister kingdom, is comprehended in our plan. The plot of this celebrated Comedy is so well known, as to render an accurate delineation of it altogether unnecessary. We shall only, therefore, take a general view of it, and enquire, since it has contributed so highly to the amusement of mankind, whether it be calculated also for their instruction.

We are sorry to observe, that this play is certainly deficient in its moral tendency. The hero of it, is a young man devoid of prudence, justice, and decency; who, consistent with his own honour and generosity, can live satisfied and happy amidst the ruin which his extravagance had brought upon the honest and industrious. This indeed, is a common character in life; but it ought not, on that account, to be less the object of reprehension. It must be allowed, that the smooth-faced villany of Joseph Surface, when contrasted with the vices of Charles, makes the latter appear in an advantageous light. Yet some may, perhaps, doubt, whether the man who conceals his vices and punctually pays his debts, be not a less injurious member of society, than he, who openly declares war against morality, and despises his creditors and all the rules of decorum.

The characters of the brothers evidently resemble those of Blyfil and Tom Jones. Their uncle and patron Sir Oliver may also have been imitated from Alworthy. But Fielding seems to have been more intimately acquainted with nature, than the Author of the *School for Scandal*. Why
Sir

Sir Oliver on his first arrival should immediately condemn one of his nephews, because *every body spoke well of him*, is, perhaps, not easy to be reconciled; nor can we allow, that *prudence clinging round the green suckers of youth, is like ivy round the saplin, and spoils the growth of the tree*. When for want of this cautious principle such multitudes of the young of both sexes are continually involved in misery and ruin, it is surely dangerous, as well as unjust, to represent it in so unfavourable a point of view. The brevity of wit often gives a more fatal stab to virtue, than the protracted reasoning of the most laboured disquisition.

It were, indeed, to be wished, that such a profusion of wit, and such elegance of expression, had been employed on a moral more unexceptionable and harmless. Yet, under these circumstances, the success of the piece had probably been less. Mankind, in general, are more fond of attending to excuses for vice, than to incentives to virtue. A libertine reclaimed, all at once, amidst youth, health, and a large acquisition of fortune, does not appear as an improbable event: though it is, perhaps, one of the most uncommon occurrences in real life. The picture is pleasing; and therefore, the want of a resemblance to nature, is disregarded.

Since this is the first opportunity, which has been offered of reading this admired comedy, we doubt not the curiosity of our Readers will be gratified in presenting them with that most interesting scene, where Sir Peter and Lady Teazle by the fall of the screen, are exposed to each other in Joseph's Study.

SCENE the Apartments of JOSEPH SURFACE.

Enter JOSEPH and a SERVANT.

Jos. No letter from Lady Teazle.

Serv. No, sir.

Jos. I wonder she did not write if she could not come—I hope Sir Peter does not suspect me—But Charles's dissipation and extravagance are great points in my favour (*Knocking at the door*)—See if it is her.

Serv. 'Tis Lady Teazle, sir; but she always orders her chair to the milliner's in the next street.

Jos. Then draw that screen—my opposite neighbour is a maiden lady of so curious a temper—You need not wait. (*Exit Servant.*)—My Lady Teazle, I'm afraid begins to suspect my attachment to Maria; but she must not be acquainted with that secret till I have her more in my power.

Enter Lady TEAZLE.

L. Teaz. What, Sentiment in soliloquy!—Have you been very impatient now? Nay you look so grave,—I assure you I came as soon as I could.

Jos.

Jos. Oh, madam, punctuality is a species of constancy—a very unfashionable custom among ladies.

L. Teaz. Nay, now you wrong me; I'm sure you'd pity me if you knew my situation—[*both sit.*]—Sir Peter really grows so peevish, and so ill-natured, there's no enduring him; and then, to suspect me with Charles—

Jos. I'm glad my scandalous friends keep up that report. [*Aside.*]

L. Teaz. For my part, I wish Sir Peter to let Maria marry him—Wouldn't you, Mr. Surface?

Jos. Indeed I would not—[*Aside.*]—Oh, to be sure; and then my dear Lady Teazle would be convinced how groundless her suspicions were, of my having any thoughts of the silly girl.

L. Teaz. Then, there's my friend Lady Sneerwell has propagated malicious stories about me—and what's very provoking, all too without the least foundation.

Jos. Ah! there's the mischief—for when a scandalous story is believed against one, there's no comfort like the consciousness of having deserved it.

L. Teaz. And to be continually censured and suspected, when I know the integrity of my own heart—it would almost prompt me to give him some grounds for it.

Jos. Certainly—for when a husband grows suspicious, and withdraws his confidence from his wife, it then becomes a part of her duty to endeavour to outwit him.—You owe it to the natural privilege of your sex.

L. Teaz. Indeed!

Jos. Oh yes; for your husband should never be deceived in you, and you ought to be frail in compliment to his discernment.

L. Teaz. This is the newest doctrine.

Jos. Very wholesome, believe me.

L. Teaz. So, the only way to prevent his suspicions, is to give him cause for them.

Jos. Certainly.

L. Teaz. But then, the consciousness of my innocence—

Jos. Ah, my dear Lady Teazle, 'tis that consciousness of your innocence that ruins you. What is it that makes you imprudent in your conduct, and careless of the censures of the world? The consciousness of your innocence.—What is it makes you regardless of forms, and inattentive to your husband's peace?—Why, the consciousness of your innocence.—Now, my dear Lady Teazle, if you could only be prevailed upon to make a trifling *faux pas*, you can't imagine how circumspect you would grow.

L. Teaz. Do you think so?

Jos. Depend upon it.—Your case at present, my dear Lady Teazle, resembles that of a person in a plethora—you are absolutely dying of too much health.

L. Teaz. Why, indeed, if my understanding could be convinced—

Jos. Your understanding!—Oh yes, your understanding *should* be convinced. Heaven forbid that I should persuade you to any thing you thought wrong. No, no, I have too much honour for that,

L. Teaz.

L. Teaz. Don't you think you may as well leave honour out of the question? *[both rise.]*

Jos. Ah! I see, Lady Teazle, the effects of your country education still remain.

L. Teaz. They do, indeed, and I begin to find myself imprudent; and if I should be brought to act wrong, it would be sooner from Sir Peter's ill treatment of me, than from your honourable logic, I assure you.

Jos. Then by this hand, which is unworthy of—*[kneeling, a Servant enters.]*—What do you want, you scoundrel?

Serv. I beg pardon, sir—I thought you would not chuse Sir Peter should come up.

Jos. Sir Peter!

L. Teaz. Sir Peter! Oh, I'm undone!—What shall I do? Hide me somewhere, good Mr. Logic.

Jos. Here, here, behind this screen, *(She runs behind the screen)* and now reach me a book. *[Sits down and reads.]*

Enter Sir PETER.

Sir Pet. Aye, there he is, ever improving himself.—Mr. Surface, Mr. Surface.

Jos. *[Affecting to gape.]* Oh, Sir Peter!—I rejoice to see you—I was got over a sleepy book here—I am vastly glad to see you—I thank you for this call—I believe you have not been here since I finished my library—Books, books you know, are the only thing I am a coxcomb in.

Sir Pet. Very pretty, indeed—why, even your screen is a source of knowledge—hung round with maps I see.

Jos. Yes, I find great use in that screen.

Sir Pet. Yes, yes, so you must when you want to find any thing in a hurry.

Jos. Yes, or to hide any thing in a hurry.

[Aside.]

Sir Pet. But, my dear friend, I want to have some private talk with you.

Jos. You need not wait.

[Exit Servant.]

Sir Pet. Pray sit down—*(both sit)*—My dear friend, I want to impart to you some of my distresses—In short, Lady Teazle's behaviour of late has given me very great uneasiness. She not only dissipates and destroys my fortune, but I have strong reasons to believe she has formed an attachment elsewhere.

Jos. I am unhappy to hear it.

Sir Pet. Yes, and between you and me, I believe I have discovered the person.

Jos. You alarm me exceedingly.

Sir Pet. I knew you would sympathize with me.

Jos. Believe me, Sir Peter, such a discovery would affect me—just as much as it does you.

Sir Pet. What a happiness to have a friend we can trust, even with our family secrets—Can't you guess who it is?

Jos. I hav'n't the most distant idea.—It can't be Sir Benjamin Backbite.

Sir Pet. No, no.—What do you think of Charles?

Jos.

Jos. My brother! impossible!—I can't think he would be capable of such baseness and ingratitude.

Sir Pet. Ah, the goodness of your own mind makes you slow to believe such villainy.

Jos. Very true, Sir Peter.—The man who is conscious of the integrity of his own heart, is ever slow to credit another's baseness.

Sir Pet. And yet that the son of my old friend should practice against the honour of my family.

Jos. Aye, there's the case, Sir Peter.—When ingratitude bars the dart of injury, the wound feels doubly smart.

Sir Pet. What noble sentiments!—He never used a sentiment, ungrateful boy! that I acted as guardian to, and who was brought up under my eye; and I never in my life refused him—my advice.

Jos. I don't know, Sir Peter,—he may be such a man—if it be so, he is no longer a brother of mine; I renounce him. I disclaim him.—For the man who can break through the laws of hospitality, and seduce the wife or daughter of his friend, deserves to be branded as a pest to society.

Sir Pet. And yet, Joseph, if I was to make it public, I should only be sneered and laughed at.

Jos. Why, that's very true—No, no, you must not make it public; people would talk—

Sir Pet. Talk!—they'd say it was all my own fault; an old, doting bachelor, to marry a young giddy girl. They'd paragraph me in the newspapers, and make ballads on me.

Jos. And yet, Sir Peter, I can't think that my Lady Teazle's honour—

Sir Pet. Ah, my dear friend, what's her honour, opposed against the flattery of a handsome young fellow.—But Joseph, she has been upbraiding me of late, that I have not made her a settlement; and I think, in our last quarrel, she told me she should not be very sorry if I was dead. Now, I have brought drafts of two deeds for your perusal, and she shall find, if I was to die, that I have not been inattentive to her welfare while living. By the one, she will enjoy eight hundred pounds a year during my life; and by the other, the bulk of my fortune after my death.

Jos. This conduct is truly generous.—I wish it mayn't corrupt my pupil. *[Aside.]*

Sir Pet. But I would not have her as yet acquainted with the least mark of my affection.

Jos. Nor I—if I could help it. *[Aside.]*

Sir Pet. And now I have unburthened myself to you, let us talk over your affair with Maria.

Jos. Not a syllable upon the subject now. *(alarmed)*—Some other time; I am too much affected by your affairs, to think of my own. For the man, who can think of his own happiness, while his friend is in distress, deserves to be hunted as a monster to society.

Sir Pet. I am sure of your affection for her.

Jos. Let me entreat you, Sir Peter—

Sir Pet. And though you are so averse to Lady Teazle's knowing it, I assure you, she is not your enemy, and I am sensibly chagrined you have made no further progress.

Jos.

Jos. Sir Peter, I must not hear you——The man who——
(Enter a Servant) What do you want sirrah?

Serv. Your brother, sir, is at the door talking to a gentleman; he says he knows you are at home, that Sir Peter is with you, and he must see you.

Jos. I am not at home.

Sir Pet. Yes, yes, you shall be at home.

Jos. (After some hesitation) Very well, let him come up.

[Exit Servant.]

Sir Pet. Now, Joseph, I'll hide myself, and do you tax him about the affair with my Lady Teazle, and so draw the secret from him.

Jos. O fye! Sir Peter——what, join in a plot to trepan my brother!

Sir Pet. Oh aye, to serve your friend:—besides, if he is innocent, as you say he is, it will give him an opportunity to clear himself, and make me very happy. Hark, I hear him coming——Where shall I go?—Behind this screen——What the devil! here has been one listener already, for I'll swear I saw a petticoat.

Jos. (Affecting to laugh) It's very ridiculous—Ha, ha, ha,——a ridiculous affair, indeed——ha, ha, ha.——Hark ye, Sir Peter, (pulling him aside) though I hold a man of intrigue to be a most despicable character, yet you know it does not follow, that one is to be an absolute Joseph either. Hark ye, 'tis a little French milliner, who calls upon me sometimes, and hearing you were coming, and having some character to lose, she slipped behind the screen.

Sir Pet. A French milliner! (smiling) Cunning rogue! Joseph——Sly rogue——But zounds, she has overheard every thing that has passed about my wife.

Jos. Oh, never fear——Take my word it will never go farther for her.

Sir Pet. Won't it?

Jos. No, depend upon it.

Sir Pet. Well, well, if it will go no farther——But——where shall I hide myself?

Jos. Here, here, slip into this closet, and you may overhear every word.

L. Teaz. Can I steal away. (Peeping)

Jos. Hush! hush! don't stir.

Sir Pet. Joseph, tax him home. (Peeping)

Jos. In, in, my dear Sir Peter.

L. Teaz. Can't you lock the closet door?

Jos. Not a word——you'll be discovered.

Sir Pet. Joseph, don't spare him.

Jos. For heaven's sake lie close——A pretty situation I am in, to part man and wife in this manner. [Aside.]

Sir Pet. You're sure the little French milliner won't blab.

Enter CHARLES.

Char. Why, how now, brother, your fellow denied you, they said you were not at home.——What, have you had a Jew or a wench with you?

Jos.

Jos. Neither, brother, neither.

Char. But where's Sir Peter? I thought he was with you.

Jos. He was, brother: but hearing you was coming, he left the house.

Char. What, was the old fellow afraid I wanted to borrow money of him?

Jos. Borrow! no, brother; but I am sorry to hear you have given that worthy man cause for great uneasiness.

Char. Yes, I am told I do that to a great many worthy men—— But how do you mean, brother?

Jos. Why, he thinks you have endeavoured to alienate the affections of Lady Teazle.

Char. Who, I alienate the affections of Lady Teazle!—— Upon my word he accuses me very unjustly. What, has the old gentleman found out that he has got a young wife: or, what is worse, has the lady found out that she has got an old husband.

Jos. For shame, brother.

Char. 'Tis true, I did once suspect her ladyship had a partiality for me, but upon my soul I never gave her the least encouragement; for, you know my attachment was to Maria.

Jos. This will make Sir Peter extremely happy——But if she had a partiality for you, sure you would not have been base enough——

Char. Why, look'ye, Joseph, I hope I shall never deliberately do a dishonourable action; but if a pretty woman should purposely throw herself in my way, and that pretty woman should happen to be married to a man old enough to be her father——

Jos. What then?

Char. Why then, I believe I should——have occasion to borrow a little of your morality, brother.

Jos. Oh fie, brother——The man who can jest——

Char. Oh, that's very true, as you were going to observe.—— But Joseph, do you know that I am surprized at your suspecting me with Lady Teazle. I thought you was always the favourite there.

Jos. Me!

Char. Why yes, I have seen you exchange such significant glances.

Jos. Pshaw!

Char. Yes, I have; and don't you remember when I came in here, and caught you and her at——

Jos. I must stop him. [*Aside*] [*Stops his mouth.*] Sir Peter has overheard every word that you have said.

Char. Sir Peter! where is he?——What, in the closet——
'Foregad I'll have him out.

Jos. No, no. [*Stopping him.*]

Char. I will——Sir Peter Teazle, come into court.

Enter Sir PETER.

What, my old guardian turn inquisitor, and take evidence incog.

Sir Pet. Give me your hand,—I own, my dear boy, I have suspected you wrongfully; but you must not be angry with Joseph; it was all my plot, and I shall think of you as long as I live for what I overheard.

Char.

Char. Then 'tis well you did not hear more. Is it not, Joseph?

Sir Pet. What, you would have retorted on Joseph, would you?

Char. And yet you might as well have suspected him as me. Might he not, Joseph?

Enter SERVANT.

Serv. [*Whispering Joseph.*]—Lady Sneerwell, sir, is just coming up, and says she must see you.

Jos. Gentlemen, I must beg your pardon; I have company waiting for me; give me leave to conduct you down stairs.

Char. No, no, speak to them in another room; I have not seen Sir Peter a great while, and I want to talk with him.

Jos. Well, I'll send away the person and return immediately. Sir Peter, not a word of the little French milliner. [*Aside, and exit.*]

Sir Pet. Ah, Charles, what a pity it is you don't associate more with your brother, we might then have some hopes of your reformation; he's a young man of such sentiments—Ah, there's nothing in the world so noble as a man of sentiment.

Char. Oh, he's too moral by half; and so apprehensive of his good name, that, I dare say, he would as soon let a priest into his house as a wench.

Sir Pet. No, no, you accuse him wrongfully—Tho' Joseph is not a rake, he is no saint.

Char. Oh! a perfect anchorite—a young hermit.

Sir Pet. Hush, hush; don't abuse him, or he may chance to hear of it again.

Char. Why, you won't tell him, will you?

Sir Pet. No, no, but—I have a great mind to tell him. [*Aside*]—[*seems to hesitate*]—Hark ye, Charles, have you a mind for a laugh at Joseph?

Char. I should like it of all things—let's have it.

Sir Pet. Gad I'll tell him—I'll be even with Joseph for discovering me in the closet.—[*Aside*]—Hark'ye, Charles, he had a girl with him when I called.

Char. Who, Joseph! impossible!

Sir Pet. Yes, a little French milliner, [*takes him to the front*]—and the best of the joke is, she is now in the room.

Char. The devil she is!—Where?

Sir Pet. Hush, hush—behind the screen.

Char. I'll have her out.

Sir Pet. No, no, no.

Char. Yes.

Sir Pet. No.

Char. By the Lord I will—so now for it.

Both run up to the screen—The screen falls, at the same time JOSEPH enters.

Char. Lady Teazle, by all that's wonderful!

Sir Pet. Lady Teazle, by all that's horrible!

Char. Sir Peter, this is the smartest little French milliner I ever saw.—But pray what is the meaning of all this? You seem to have been playing at hide and seek here, and for my part, I don't know who's in or who's out of the secret—Madam, will you please to explain?—Not a word!—Brother, is it your pleasure to il-

lustrate

illustrate?—Morality dumb too!—Well, though I can make nothing of it, I suppose you perfectly understand one another, good folks, and so I'll leave you. Brother, I am sorry you have given that worthy man so much cause for uneasiness—Sir Peter, there's nothing in the world so noble as a man of sentiment.—Ha, ha, ha! [*Exit.*]

Jos. Sir Peter, notwithstanding appearances are against me——if——if you'll give me leave——I'll explain every thing to your satisfaction.

Sir Pet. If you please, sir.

Jos. Lady Teazle knowing my——Lady Teazle—I say—knowing my pretensions—to your ward—Maria—and—Lady Teazle—I say—knowing the jealousy of my—of your temper—she called in here—in order that she—that I might explain—what these pretensions were—And—hearing you were coming—and—as I said before—knowing the jealousy of your temper—she—my Lady Teazle—I say—went behind the screen—and——This is a full and clear account of the whole affair.

Sir Pet. A very clear account truly! and I dare say the lady will vouch for the truth of every word of it.

L. Teaz. [*Advancing*] For not one syllable, Sir Peter.

Sir Pet. What, the devil! don't you think it worth your while to agree in the lie?

L. Teaz. There's not one word of truth in what that gentleman has been saying.

Jos. Zounds, madam, you won't ruin me.

L. Teaz. Stand out of the way, Mr. Hypocrite, I'll speak for myself.

Sir Pet. Aye, aye—let her alone—she'll make a better story of it than you did.

L. Teaz. I came here with no intention of listening to his addresses to Maria, and even ignorant of his pretensions; but seduced by his insidious arts, at least to listen to his addresses, if not to sacrifice his honour, as well as my own, to his unwarrantable desires.

Sir Pet. Now I believe the truth is coming indeed.

Jos. What! is the woman mad?

L. Teaz. No, sir, she has recovered her senses. Sir Peter, I cannot expect you will credit me; but the tenderness you expressed for me, when I am certain you did not know I was within hearing, has penetrated so deep into my soul, that could I have escaped the mortification of this discovery, my future life should have convinced you of my sincere repentance. As for that smooth-tongued hypocrite, who would have seduced the wife of his too credulous friend, while he pretended an honourable passion for his ward, I now view him in so despicable a light, that I shall never again respect myself for having listened to his addresses. [*Exit.*]

Jos. Sir Peter—Notwithstanding all this—Heaven is my witness——

Sir Pet. That you are a villain—and so I'll leave you to your meditations——

Jos. Nay, Sir Peter, you must not leave me——The man who shuts his ears against conviction——

Sir Pet.

Sir Pet. Oh, damn your sentiments——damn your sentiments——
[Exit, Joseph following.]

The applause which this scene has ever met with in the representation, is a sufficient testimony of its merit. We cannot, however, help observing, that, in our opinion, some part of it is unnatural. When Joseph is agitated with surprise and fear at the sudden arrival of Sir Peter, it is reasonable to expect, that, whilst the cause continues, the effect should remain. The sallies of wit, and the smartness of repartee, cannot properly flow, but from a heart at ease. The immaculate character which this young man wishes to preserve in Sir Peter's opinion, and the hazardous situation in which Lady Teazle is placed, must naturally excite the most poignant apprehension; nor will it be sufficient to say, that a feigned vivacity and ease is requisite, in order to impose on Sir Peter; since, if that be admitted, it will not obtain with respect to a discerning audience, who expect to discover a more expressive conflict betwixt guilt and hypocrisy. When Sir P. (speaking of the screen,) therefore observes, that Joseph must find great use in it, when *he wants to find any thing in a hurry*; he answers, most unnaturally to the audience,—*yes, or to hide any thing in a hurry*. Such expressions as this will catch the applause of the crowd, but must offend the judicious.

Our observations on this celebrated Comedy, it is hoped, will not be considered as illiberal; since our admiration of the many beauties with which it abounds, is at least equal to our regret, that the plot was not less exceptionable.

ART. III. *The Works of John Fothergill, M. D.* By J. Oakley Lettson. Vol. I. and II. 8vo. 12s. boards. Dilly.

THESE essays possess very unequal degrees of merit. Some are peurile and insignificant, whilst others convey useful information. Dr. Lettson would, we apprehend; have consulted better both the memory of his friend and the pleasure of the public, if he had reduced this collection to half its present size. But recent publications are too numerous and their claim upon our attention too just, to allow us to enter into a particular discussion of the contents of these volumes. We shall therefore satisfy ourselves with barely pointing out those pieces, that might with propriety have been left in that oblivion to which they have been for some time consigned. These are the Inaugural Dissertation, the Meteorological Observations, which take up great part of the first volume, but are far too inaccurate to answer any useful purposes, and many of

the Papers on Natural History. The Physical Essays are entitled to a very different character : and if the writer of this article may venture to propose the idea of Dr. Fothergill as a Medical Author, which the perusal of those essays has impressed upon his mind, he would observe that accuracy and fidelity are his distinguishing excellencies. No writer has described with greater precision the appearances of nature in a state of disease, and upon none may the student rely with more entire confidence as a sure guide : he seems to have possessed little of that spirit of enterprize, or of rashness, by which the resources of medicine have been increased, and the great improvements of that science suggested ; but he was well acquainted with the discoveries of others, and knew how to employ them with advantage : few authors have indulged so little in speculations, yet from the inconsiderable number of expressions relating to the theory of diseases which occur in his writings, he appears to have been contented with the Boerhaavian doctrines, such as he received them from his preceptors.

Dr. Lettsom has announced his intention of publishing a third volume, which is to consist of an account of the life of the author, and inedited essays and letters : he will, we hope, pardon us, if we confess, that our expectations from these posthumous papers are not very high, and we suggest extreme caution in the selection of the materials. To the Editor's part, however, we look forward with pleasure, for we have reason to believe that the more Dr. Fothergill's conduct in private life is known, the more his memory will be respected.

ART. IV. *Voyages dans les Alpes. Journeys in the Alps.* To which is prefixed, an Essay on the Natural History of the Environs of Geneva. By H. B. De Saussure, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Geneva. Vol. I. 540 pages 4to.

IN the Preliminary Dissertation by which this interesting work is introduced we have some general remarks on the improvements which *geology** is likely to receive from the study of mountains. "The progress of the theory of the earth," says M. de Saussure, "is chiefly to be accelerated by the study of mountains. The plains are uniform, and do not exhibit sections of different strata, except where

* This term was employed by M. de Luc. M. de Saussure has adopted it. It is evident from its etymology, that it expresses the idea it is designed to convey, better than "Cosmology," the word in general use.

excavations have been made by water or man : now these are quite inadequate to the purpose because they are of rare occurrence, of small extent, and because the deepest do not penetrate more than 200 or 300 fathoms. The high mountains, on the contrary, infinitely diversified both in matter and form, openly display natural sections of great extent, in which may be observed with the utmost distinctness, and at a single glance, the order, situation, direction, thickness, and nature of the strata of which they consist, and of the fissures by which they are divided." The Author then describes the turn of mind proper for deducing useful conclusions from particular observations, justly censuring those self-called naturalists whose only object is the collecting of curiosities. After which he warmly expatiates on the pleasures experienced by the frequenters of mountains, adding, " with respect to myself, I have ever since my childhood been passionately fond of these pursuits. I still remember my sensations the first time my hands touched the rock of the Saleve, and my eyes enjoyed its prospects. At the age of eighteen (in 1758) I had already traversed the mountains that lie nearest to Geneva. Next year I went to spend fifteen days in one of the highest hamlets of the Jura, in order to visit carefully the Dole, and the neighbouring mountains ; the same year I ascended the Mole for the first time : but these mountains of small elevation satisfied my curiosity very imperfectly. I felt the most eager desire of having a nearer view of the high Alps, which appeared so majestic from the summits of the former mountains ; at length, in 1760, I set out alone and on foot, to visit the glaciers of Chamouni, little frequented at that time, and of which the approach was esteemed difficult and dangerous. I returned to them the following year, and since that time I have not suffered a single year to pass without undertaking long excursions, and even journeys, in order to study mountains. In that space I have crossed the whole chain of the Alps fourteen times, by eight different roads ; I have besides made sixteen excursions to the center of the chain. I have traversed the Jura, the Vosges, the mountains of Switzerland, of part of Germany, those of England, Italy, Sicily, and the adjacent isles ; I have visited the ancient volcanos of Auvergne, part of those of Vivarais, and several mountains of Forez, Dauphiny, and Burgundy." Such are the claims of this accomplished Naturalist upon the confidence of his Readers. Nor will his accuracy be thought less praiseworthy than his unremitting diligence ; for he tells us, that he always takes down his observations on the spot, and copies them fair within twenty-four hours. Yet,

notwithstanding this minute attention, he thinks the greater part of his collections too imperfect to be submitted to public inspection, and ventures only that which has been made within the last four or five years. "And even these," says he, "I submit with extreme diffidence, well assured that those naturalists who shall happen to view after me, the objects which I describe, will discover many things that have escaped my researches." The remainder of the Preface is taken up with an account of the plan of the work. It is to be completed in three volumes: in the third, M. de Saussure will give the general consequences deducible from all his observations. In the course of his travels he has paid particular attention to the study of the primitive mountains, and above all, to those of granit; a subject which has been considered as above the reach of human abilities, by the latest and best naturalists, Dr. Pallas, M. de Luc, &c. M. de Saussure, however, has neither been discouraged by authorities nor difficulties, and he persuades himself that his assiduous attention, to the forms of these primitive mountains which are so well designed in the Alps, and some new facts which accident threw in his way, have contributed to give him some information respecting their origin.

The two first chapters are filled with various observations relating to the celebrated Lemman Lake. We are told, that in time the basin must be filled up by the depositions of the Rhone, which at its entrance is very turbid, and issues out quite limpid. The height of the water is subject to considerable variations; it is highest from April to August, and lowest from September to December. The reason of this difference is very obvious. The Rhone and other rivers which run into the lake, take their rise in the Alps. Now in the high Alps, little or no rain falls during winter. Hence the rivers are supplied only by the springs, the rain falling in the low vallies, and the inconsiderable quantity of snow melted by the internal heat of the earth; whereas in summer, these rivers are swollen, not only by the rain which waters the whole extent of the mountains, but also by the melting of the greatest part of the snow, accumulated during winter on the same mountains.

But the most remarkable phenomenon relating to this lake, are certain oscillations called *Seiches*. On stormy days the water is seen suddenly to rise four or five feet, and sink again with equal suddenness, and continue these alternations during some hours. Several explanations of this phenomenon have been given; that of M. Bertrand seems the most plausible: he supposes that the clouds, charged with electricity, attract the water, which in consequence of its falling

falling back, produces these oscillations. M. de Saussure adds, that sudden local variations of the gravity of the air may cause momentaneous fluxes and refluxes, by occasioning unequal pressure on different parts of the lake. The second chapter treats of the depth and temperature of the lake, but as the Author promises some further observations on the same subject, we shall consider this part when we give an account of the second volume. The third chapter contains observations on the shape and structure of the hills in the vicinity of Geneva. The fourth and fifth furnish us with the nomenclature of the different kinds of stones that are found dispersed near the same city. This article, though very instructive, evidently admits not of abridgement. We shall, however, take notice of two digressions introduced in the course of it. The first relates to the chymical history of the amianthus. One hundred parts digested in the nitrous and vitriolic acid, lost only two, which consisted partly of calcareous earth, and partly of magnesia. Four drachms of vitriolic acid, distilled from two of amianthus, afforded the same result. The Prussian alkali precipitated no iron from the water in which the amianthus had been washed, after the acid was driven over into the receiver. The colour of the stone was changed to yellow, but its flexibility remained unimpaired. This analysis is not very satisfactory, and we doubt not but different results will be obtained, if this fossil should be examined in the way described by Professor Bergmann in the fifteenth and sixteenth of his chymical essays. The digression relating to the nature of the stones, by the fusion of which the various kinds of lava have been produced, is more interesting. M. Desmarest, who has observed with the utmost attention, the progress of nature in the production of volcanic matters, and detected many of her operations by uncommon sagacity of conjecture, has advanced that granits are the most general materials of basaltres. But the experiments related by our Author completely overturn this hypothesis; they prove, that granits require for their fusion, a heat much superior, in the opinion of M. Desmarest himself, to that of volcanos, and that when fused, they give very different products from lava or basaltres. From similar experiments on various kinds of porphyry, he deduces the same consequence with respect to that species of stone. M. de Saussure is of opinion, that the *saxa cornea molliora* of Wallerius, have afforded the greater part of the black, compact, and thoroughly fused kinds of lava. All the stones of this sort, which he subjected to the action of fire, were fused by a moderate heat, such as that of volcanos seems to have been, and were changed into

a black, half-vitrified matter, exactly resembling porous lava. After the heat of subterraneous fire hath converted these stones into porous lava, the long duration of this heat gradually expells the bubbles which occasion its porosity, or causes them to be absorbed, and so changes them into compact lava: for it is only in the center of volcanic currents that the heat has continued long enough to produce lava of a close texture, and free from bubbles.

The same species of rock, which a moderate heat changes first into porous, and afterwards into compact lava, exposed to a more violent heat, is changed into a black, brilliant, opaque glass, or enamel, perfectly like that exhibited by volcanic substances, wherever any accidental causes have augmented the heat.

Homogeneous lavas and basaltes produced by volcanos, exposed to an equal degree of heat, afford also a black enamel, exactly resembling that afforded by horn-stones.

Besides, vitrifications of these stones treated with acids, are partly soluble in them, and give out precisely the same products as lava and basaltes.

From these and other considerations our Author concludes that the horn-stone, or the tender kinds of schorl, have furnished the greatest part of the homogeneous lavas and basaltes, and that the same stones have formed the basis of most of those lavas and basaltes, which in an uniform ground contain grains of quartz and feld-spath, or other refractory substances.

Marls, and some species of talk, such as are easily fused, and give a compact glass, may also have supplied the materials of different solid lavas.

Lastly, cellular and spongy lava, is probably the product of different kinds of slates.

However plausible this theory may appear, with respect to basaltes we are not to forget the strong objections alledged by the greatest of modern chymists, Professor Bergmann, against the received opinion of its production by fire.

The next chapter treats of the pebbles, and fragments of rocks, scattered in the valley of the Lake of Geneva, and the adjacent mountains. He adopts the received opinion concerning their origin. Close by the beds of torrents he has found them with all their angles sharp, and their sides rough. Within the beds these fragments began to lose these appearances, till at last they become quite round and smooth. But it is not only near the lake, and at the feet of the mountains that pebbles are observed, they are seen dispersed over the Saleve, and that side of the Jura which looks towards the Alps, at the height of three or four hun-

hundred fathoms above the level of the lake. 'And if these bodies have been transported by waters, whence had these waters their source, what excited so violent a commotion, as to enable them to transport these masses to eminences separated by extensive and deep vallies from the primitive Alps? In answer to these questions, our Author lays down the following hypothesis. "The waters of the ocean, in which our mountains were formed, still covered part of these mountains, when a violent earthquake suddenly opened many large caverns that were before empty, and shattered a great number of rocks."

"The waters rushed towards these abysses with extreme fury, in proportion to their height, formed profound vallies, and swept away immense quantities of earth, sand, and fragments of various kinds of rocks. These matters half liquid, and driven along by the weight of the waters, were accumulated on the heights where they are now found scattered."

Several observations are adduced in support of this hypothesis. These fragments are said to be nowhere found in greater plenty, or in higher situations, than in places opposite to the vallies of the Alps. They are not observed in those vallies of the Jura, which lye behind the high ridge which bounds this mountain where it faces the Alps.

M. de Saussure also believes, that at the time of this great revolution, the waters of the Lake of Geneva were far higher than at present. This lake lies in the center of an immense basin, on all sides enclosed with very high mountains; the only outlet for the Rhone is a very narrow passage between the Vouache and Jura, which M. de Saussure believes were once united: were this passage filled up, Geneva and all the adjacent country would be covered with water. In his researches on the Saleve, our Author thinks he has discovered many traces of this ancient elevation of the water, such as cavities, furrows, beds of sand, &c.

But we can no longer follow this entertaining and instructive naturalist, step by step, in his excursions. What we have already said of his work, will, we trust, be abundantly sufficient to recommend it to the students of natural history, and to excite an ardent wish in the English reader, that it may soon be translated into our language. His notions, however, concerning the origin of granits, are so original and peculiar, that we are tempted to lay before our Readers the substance of what he has advanced on this subject.

"Those who would maintain that the granit has been formed

formed by the union of the parts of a loose sand or gravel, may suppose that the quartz, one of the chief ingredients, has insinuated itself by infiltration, and thus filling their interstices, has caused their cohesion; but the quartz forms not only the gluten, but also the base of the stone, and commonly the different materials are in such proportion, and so arranged, as to appear all equally necessary to the support of the edifice, which they contribute to form, so that neither can be taken away without the ruin of the whole; whence it follows, that two or three of these materials cannot have existed first, and then the last have supervened and filled the interstices.

It is common to find granits composed of nearly equal grains of quartz and schorl, or of quartz and feld-spath. Imagine one of these ingredients taken away, and you will perceive that the gravel formed by the remaining, must have sunk down together, and thus have filled up the void spaces, that are now occupied by the substance, which you suppose to have supervened afterwards.

Frequently in the same block, the same materials are unequally mixed; here nothing but mica, there quartz only, in another place crystals of feld-spath piled one upon another, whichever you suppose to have been added the last, you must of necessity admit large voids, which could not have subsisted in a loose and incoherent gravel.

I think it probable then that all the constituent parts of granit are cotemporary, that they all have been formed in the same element, and by the same cause, which cause was no other than chrySTALLIZATION. The elements of quartz, schorl, and feld-spath, were dissolved in the same fluid, and chrySTALLIZED together; just as we see water saturated with different salts, deposit in the bottom of the same vessel, crystals of all these different salts of greater or less regularity, and more or less interwoven with each other."

The Author here adduces three observations of crevices filled with granit recently formed and moulded in them.

"These observations," he proceeds, "seem to throw great light on the formation of granit; for to persons at all versed in mineralogy it will appear evident that these veins have been formed by the infiltration of water, which as it descended from the eminences above, conveyed the elements of granit along with it, and deposited them in the fissures, where they chrySTALLIZED. When crevices of marble or slate are filled with spar or quartz, it is determined without hesitation that these parasitical bodies have been conveyed by water, and that they afterwards chrySTALLIZE in the places where they are found. Since the elements of granit are all susceptible of

Saunders's *Journies in the Alps.*

of the aqueous chrysalization, why should we hesitate, in the same circumstances, to acknowledge that this stone also has been dissolved and chrysalized by means of water?

As then the nature of the elements of granit, and the manner in which they are disposed, seem to shew that it is the product of chrysalization, what remains to complete the proof, that it really proceeds from this origin?

Two things remain: first, to find their stratifications; and secondly, to discover the fragments of marine productions.

With respect to the first point, after having seen in the Alps the disposition of the leaves parallel to the direction of the great chain, the regularity and parallelism of these leaves, or strata themselves, there can no longer remain with me any doubt: for their inclination can be no objection, since the strata of some calcareous and slate hills are found equally inclined to the horizon.

Yet it must be owned, that all granits shew not alike regular strata, those of the plains and lower mountains seldom exhibit this structure: but the reason is obvious, for they are almost all divided into rhomboidal fragments: now these divisions have caused the rupture and confusion of the strata: when they were once reduced into incoherent pieces, they could no longer resist the injuries of time, the sinking of their bases, earthquakes, &c. by which accidents they have been so far obliterated, as now to seem only formless heaps of materials split into all manner of shapes:

But in the high Alps, although fissures may sometimes be perceived, yet they are much more rare, and frequently soldered by quartz; and the strata have been strong enough to support themselves.

If the reason of this difference should be demanded, I would answer, that it is owing to a greater proportion of clay being mixed with the other constituent parts of the granit: for a tendency to break into fragments more or less regular, terminated by plane sides, is a property of this earth, which it also communicates to other minerals, nay even to the basaltes, which are produced by the fusion of rocks, in part composed of clay.

Naturalists have been misled, with respect to the structure of granits, by the degradation, the great inclination, and sometimes by the great thickness of their strata. But if they will study them where they are not broken into fragments, if they will acknowledge that nature produces inclined and vertical strata, with the same regularity as horizontal ones, if they will reflect that calcareous strata attain sometimes the thickness of sixty feet, they will be convinced that
granits

granits were at first stratified, as well as calcareous and slaty earths.

The second condition, which it is necessary to fulfil, in order to prove that granits have been formed by means of water, it is not so easy to fulfil, nay, probably it never will be fulfilled; so many good eyes, to say nothing of my own, have sought for marine productions in them, that probably none exist.

But is this condition absolutely indispensable? Are the foliated rocks, of which the leaves and strata have an indubitable existence, and which are connected with the calcareous and slaty earths by gradations so insensible, are they not evidently the work of water, and yet, as well as granits, are they not totally destitute of vestiges of marine substances?

Further, from a great number of observations it appears, that in the high mountains, the most ancient of the calcareous and slaty rocks, those which appear to have been formed immediately after the primitive mountains, contain very few or no sea bodies; while those, which have been found in plain countries, abound in them; so that one might almost establish it as a rule, that the number of marine productions contained in any earth, is inverfely as its antiquity.

And this does not happen because time destroys these vestiges, for when thin strata, fine chryfals, silky filaments have been perfectly preserved, it is impossible to suppose that strong shells would have left no trace behind them, especially since they so often acquire the nature and hardness of the earth by which they are surrounded."

These ideas on the formation of granit are, we believe altogether new: the great and most striking objection to the hypothesis evidently is, the difficulty of accounting for the solution of the constituent parts of granit in water; this is a point M de Saussure will no doubt consider in his second volume, in which he has given us ground for expecting many further illustrations of the subject; but we cannot help remarking that this appears to be an unnecessary part of his supposition, for solution is not indispensably requisite to chryfiallization; it is sufficient, as professor Bargmann well observes, that the particles of the substance to be chryfialized be so far attenuated as to remain suspended in a fluid, and to be thus enabled freely to exert their attractive power. It appears to us that this consideration will take away much of the difficulty of the Author's hypothesis.

Before we take leave of this important work, it is proper to inform our readers that M. de Saussure has taken care to embellish it with several plates. The publication of the second volume has, no doubt, been retarded by the late dis-

troubles at Geneva, but as they have now subsided, we hope that it will soon be in our power to announce its appearance.

ART. V. *An Historical Account of the Rights of Election of the several Counties, Cities, and Boroughs of Great Britain; containing the Time when each of them was first represented in Parliament, and by what Authority; together with Abstracts of the Proceedings relative to controverted Elections, under every Place, and all the new Writs issued on Seats being vacated by Death, Expulsion, accepting of Places, of Preferment, or being called up to the House of Peers, from Edward VI. to the Dissolution of the Parliament in the Year 1780. To which is prefixed, an Enquiry into the Origin of Election to Parliament, and the Right of the Commons to a Share in the Legislature. Also, the Number of Members returned in the Reigns of Edward I. Henry IV. Henry VIII, &c. And the Names of the Places that have long discontinued to send Representatives, and have not had the Privilege restored. The whole extracted from the best Collections of Records and Histories, and the Journals of Parliament. By T. Cunningham, Esq; Barrister at Law, and Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, London, 8vo. Robson.*

AFTER giving an account of the first representation of the counties, cities, and boroughs of Great Britain, this Author furnishes an abstract of all the proceedings which have taken place, with regard to controverted elections and of all the new writs which have been issued upon seats being vacated from whatsoever cause. In the execution of this business, he has been greatly assisted by the historical collections of the late Thomas Carew, Esq; but it is proper to observe, that he has supplied the omissions of that industrious compiler, and that he has continued his researches to a much later period. For the collections of Mr. Carew terminated with the year 1754, and he has continued his notices down to the year 1780.

As an introduction to this volume Mr. Cunningham has given a political dissertation upon the form or constitution of the English government. This he has also founded upon the collections of Mr. Carew; and it is a piece of justice to him to remark, that the observations he has exhibited are generally pertinent and useful. He has not, however, been able to avoid the errors which many constitutional writers have fallen into upon some points of high moment. These have a reference to the Saxon wittenagemot to the Normannic conquest, and to the notice that the 49th year of Henry III. and the 23d year of Edward I. are the dates of the origin of the representation of the

the people, But while we affirm that the Author has erred in his account of these important points, it is fit that we set ourselves to rectify his mistakes.

I. Mr. Cunningham relying upon Mr. Carew, intimates a suspicion that the people were not represented in the Anglo-Saxon times. But it is impossible to read, with dispassion, the preambles to the laws of the Anglo-Saxon princes without being convinced that the people assembled in the wittenagemots by their representatives. In these laws an express and positive mention is made of the people. The antient historians also concur in producing a similar evidence: and the scattered and combining authorities which evince the position have been fully and accurately collected and explained by Petyt and other antiquaries of ability.

H. An error of greater consequence is inculcated by Mr. Cunningham, when he endeavours to prove that the Normannic revolution was a *conquest*, and that the government of England was at this period despotic, and dependent on the sword of the prince. This opinion has been fostered with great care by all the English historians and antiquaries, who have thought proper to distinguish themselves by their zeal for the prerogatives of the crown. But it is wild and precarious in no common degree. The title of William I. to the crown of England was preferable to that of Harold; and the army he levied to invade England was to dethrone an usurper, and to establish his own legal rights. The battle of Hastings, accordingly, operated a forcible transfer of the crown, but was not a victory over the laws and people of England. In fact William the Norman took an oath to uphold the laws and the constitution. From a careful examination of the antient historians, it appears with the most expressive clearness, that Edward the Confessor had appointed William the Norman to be his successor; that the estates of the kingdom had ratified this appointment; and that even Harold himself had been commissioned to go to the continent to give this information to William, and that he had actually sworn fealty to him. What is extremely curious, in a suit of tapestry hangings preserved at Baieux in Normandy, and which is undoubtedly one of the most valuable monuments of our history, the embassy of Harold to William is represented with a minuteness and precision which cannot be misunderstood. This monument which is contemporary with the matters it describes cannot be contradicted, and gives a mortal wound to that idle and servile hypothesis of the Normannic conquest of England, which so many writers found upon as an evidence, that our kings were despotic of old, and that their successors of consequence have

have been robbed of their rights. Indeed the violent administration of William the Norman, gave a sort of colour to their notion: but those must indeed be poor reasoners, who would conclude from his acts of tyranny, that our government in his age was actually despotical. Acts of oppression may even be appealed to in very late times; but would we infer from these that the present government of England is without freedom, and dependent on the caprice of the reigning monarch!

III. The third opinion we shall mention as receiving an improper sanction from our Author and Mr. Carew, is the fancy that the 49th year of Henry III. and the 23d year of Edward I. are the real dates of the representation of the people. The foundation of this fancy is an assertion that there are no writs of summons to the knights and burgeses before these dates. But this assertion if true is a very imperfect argument; for it is well known, that the rolls or registers of summonses have not been preserved in any regular chain. The assertion however is absolutely false; for in fact there are writs of summons still extant which are previous to these dates. For example, there is a writ of summons directed to the sheriffs of Bedfordshire and Buckinghamshire which required two knights to be sent for each of these counties, and which is to be seen in the close roll of the 38th year of Henry III. And with regard to burgeses, not to mention other authorities, we have a parliamentary declaration in the days of James I. that Agmondesham, Wendover, and Great Marlow, had sent burgeses to Parliament, previous to the invasion of England by the Duke of Normandy; and that from their poverty an interruption of this right had taken place for four hundred years.

But while we have taken the trouble to remark these mistakes, we mean not to draw any improper conclusion to the prejudice of the Author, whose work is now before us. Writers, more able than he is, have fallen into the same errors; and indeed, there are so much faction and prejudice in the works of the English historians and antiquaries, that it is very difficult for the most candid inquirer to feel his way with satisfaction through the dark ages of our story.

In the execution of what is properly the intention of his undertaking, Mr. Cunningham is laborious and exact; and as the nature of his performance will appear best from a specimen of it, we shall present our Readers with what he has observed about the borough of Agmondesham.

This borough is in the county of Buckingham, and returned members to serve in parliament in the 28th of Edw. I. and in the first and second of Edw. II. according to the list given by Mr. Pryne,

Prynne, in the fourth part of his calendar of parliamentary writs; but in his *brevia parlamentaria rediviva*, he writes the return of the sheriff of Bucks 26 Edw. I. is—"Nulli sitat cives nec burgenſes in com. præd. nec civitas nec burgus, propter quod cives nec burgenſes coram nobis [vobis] venire facere non poſſum." But the very next parliament 28th Edw. I. he returns "burgenſes de Agmondeſham, qui ad ultimum parlamentum venerunt;" returning both their names, and ſo alſo 1 and 2 Edw. II. after they intermitted until the 21ſt of King James I.

‘ In the parliament held 21 Jac. it being diſcovered, by a ſearch made in the Tower of London, amongſt the ancient parliament writs, by Mr. Hakevill of Lincoln’s-Inn, that, in former times, there had been burgeſſes returned for three boroughs in the county of Bucks, which, of later times, had not ſent any burgeſſes to the parliament, namely, the boroughs of Wendover, Agmondeſham, alias Amerſham, and Great Marlow, petitions were referred to the Commons Houſe of Parliament, then ſitting, in the names of thoſe three boroughs, that they might be reſtored to the liberty, or franchise, of ſending burgeſſes to the parliament, and that a writ might be directed to the ſheriff of Bucks for that purpoſe. To which petition the Houſe inclining, notice thereof was given to the King’s Majeſty, who declared himſelf unwilling to have the number of the burgeſſes increaſed, declaring, he was troubled with too great a number already, and commanded his then ſolicitor, Sir Robert Heath, being then of the Houſe of Commons, to oppoſe it what he might; and moſt of the Commons then of the Houſe, underſtanding the King’s inclinations, did their utmoſt endeavours to croſs it. The main and legal objection made againſt it was, by the long diſcontinuance and diſuſe in not ſending burgeſſes for above 400 years, the franchise for ſending burgeſſes to parliament was loſt. On the other ſide, on behalf of the boroughs, it was confeſſed, that ſince 28 Edw. I. it was not found by any record extant, that theſe boroughs had ſent any burgeſſes, but it was alledged for them, that moſt of the ancient records ſince that time are loſt; which, if they might be found, it was conceived would declare that they had ſent many times ſince 28 Edward I. *Secondly*, It doth appear that ſheriffs, in thoſe times, were negligent in ſending their precepts to boroughs to make choice of their burgeſſes; for divers ſtatutes were made to compel the ſheriffs thereunto; ſo that the not ſending the burgeſſes was not to be imputed to any neglect in the boroughs, and therefore the negligence of the ſheriff ought not to turn to their prejudice. *Thirdly*, the uſe in theſe ancient times being, that the burgeſſes attending in parliament were maintained at the charge of the boroughs; when the boroughs grew poor, they only for that reaſon, neglected to ſend their burgeſſes to parliament; therefore, now ſeeing they were contented to undergo that burthen, or to chooſe ſuch burgeſſes as ſhould bear their own charges, there was no reaſon to deny that petition. *Laſtly*, it was urged in behalf of the burgeſſes, that the liberty of ſending burgeſſes to parliament, is a liberty of that nature and quality that it cannot be loſt by neglect of any borough: for every burgeſs ſo ſent is a member of the great council of the kingdom, maintained at the charge of the borough; and

and if such a neglect may be permitted in one borough, so it may in more, and consequently in all the boroughs of England; and then it might follow, that, for want of burgesſes, there ſhould be no parliament. And as for theſe boroughs, it did anciently appear, that they were parliament boroughs by preſcription, and not by charter; for every of them had their ſeveral forreigns, and did pay fifteens, as parliamentary boroughs, and not as other boroughs or towns.

This was that which was then alledged for them by their counſel, Mr. Hakevill of Lincoln's Inn, before the committee for privileges and returns; at which time Mr. Glanville, ſince created ſerjeant, ſitting in the chair, did put it to the queſtion; and, upon the queſtion, it was reſolved, that a warrant ſhould be made to the clerk of the crown, to make writ to the ſheriff of the county of Bucks, for the chuſing of Burgeſſes in thoſe three boroughs; of which reſolution of the committee his Maſteſty taking notice, did, before the ſame was reported to the Houſe, ſend unto the two chief juſtices, requiring them to ſend him their opinions on the point, who thereupon deſired Mr. Glanville to acquaint them with ſuch reaſons as had been alledged by Mr. Hakevill. Whereupon the chief juſtices certified his Maſteſty, that it was juſt a writ ſhould be awarded accordingly: and the opinion of the committee being reported to the Houſe of Commons, the ſame was there confirmed; *nemine contradicente.*

Whereupon a warrant, under the Speaker's hand was made to the clerk of the crown in the Chancery, for the making of ſuch a writ, which was iſſued out accordingly; and thereupon were elected, and returned to ſerve in the ſame parliament, the burgeſſes hereafter named: for Amerſham, Mr. William Hakevill, Mr. John Crew; for Wendover, Mr. John Hampden, who beareth the charge, Sir Alexander Unton; for Marlow, Mr. H. Burlace, Mr. — Cotton.

New writ for election in the room of Mr. Francis Drake, who made his election to ſerve for the county of Surry.

New writ, in the room of Sir William Drake, Bart. deceased. Information given of a falſe return, referred to committee of privileges and elections; order for their ſitting; Sir Ralph Bovey and Sir William Drake, the perſons returned, not to fit till their elections determined. Report; return to be amended; Jonathan Ball ordered into cuſtody for making a falſe return. Return amended. Ball's petition; debate thereon; reprimanded and diſcharged, but to attend committee. Indenture of Sir Ralph Bovey taken off the writ, and the indenture of Sir William Drake affixed. Jonathan Ball diſcharged, paying his fees. Petition of Sir Ralph Bovey referred.

Petition of Algernon Sidney, Eſq; referred. Petition of Sir William Drake referred; report to be made; made; right of election determined to be in thoſe inhabitants only who pay ſcot and lot. Election declared void. New writ. Petition of Algernon Sidney to be read; read; matter to be heard at bar. Petition of Sir Roger Hill and Algernon Sidney referred.

Petition of Sir Roger Hill referred.

New writ for election, in the room of Sir William Drake, deceased.

Peti-

• Petitions of Sir Roger Hill, of Timothy Wingfield, and other inhabitants referred. Report to be made; made; resolved that Sir John Garrard was duly elected. Question, that petition of Sir Roger Hill was frivolous, Negative.

• New writ for election in the room of Sir Francis Gerrard, deceased.

• New writ for election in the room of Lord Cheine, who made his election to serve for Buckinghamshire. Petition of inhabitants refused to be received.

• Petition of Sir Roger Hill, knight, referred.

• New writ for election in the room of Lord Cheine, who made his election to serve for Buckinghamshire.

• Petition of Sir Thomas Webster, Bart. referred. Report to be made; made; right of election determined to be in the inhabitants paying scot and lot only. Resolved, that William Lord Cheyne, and Sir Thomas Gerrard, are duly elected.

• New writ for election in the room of Lord Fermanagh, in the kingdom of Ireland, deceased.

• New writ, in the room of Mountague Garrard Drake, Esq; who made his election for the county of Bucks.

• New writ, in the room of Baptist Leveson Gower, Esq; who made his election for Newcastle-under-Line.

• Petition of Charles Hayes, Esq; referred.

• New writ for election in the room of Thomas Lutwyche, Esq; deceased.

• New writ, in the room of Thomas Gore, Esq; made commissary general of the musters.

• New writ, in the room of Sir Henry Marshall, deceased.

• New writ in the room of Sir Bennet Gerrard, deceased.

At a time when the attention of parliament is about to be called to the topic of a more equal representation in parliament, this work may be of considerable utility. And, in matters of such acknowledged consequence, the members of the House of Commons ought to neglect no source of information. It is from the collections of our historians and antiquaries upon constitutional points that they are to derive the knowledge that is the most beneficial, and the most likely to lead to benefit in the task of improving our government. Conceptions founded in hypothesis, and arising out of theory are generally insignificant. They may entertain in the closet; but are too visionary for business and practice.

ART. VI. *Hints for Improvement in the Art of Reading*, by J. Walker. 8vo. 2s. Cadell.

IT has been much doubted whether the art of reading can receive any considerable improvement from a system of written rules and precepts; since they are incapable of conveying a complete idea of that infinite variety of elevation and

and depression of the voice, which is so essential to its perfection. But, were we to reject every species of instruction which cannot conduct us to perfection, were we to refuse acquiring any portion of an art, where the whole cannot be conveyed,—we should confine our researches within a very narrow circle; where much cannot be obtained, we ought to be thankful for what we can acquire; and, where difficulties are numerous, we should rejoice at seeing them diminished.

They who are desirous of improvement in the art of reading will be pleased with the hints which this ingenious Author has presented to the public. The rules, which he has laid down, are of a particular and specific nature, and may be easily reduced to practice. They are calculated to convey much real instruction, since they explain, with accuracy and precision, some of the most important difficulties which occur in reading.

After observing—that mankind in general speak more naturally than they read, because, in speaking, the *idea* arises first in the mind, and that elects the word by which it is expressed; but, in reading, the *word* suggests the idea, and produces the correspondent sensibility of tone in an inverted order; Mr. Walker proceeds to shew what are the peculiar requisites of a good pronunciation. This, he very justly observes, when distinct and delicate, is the surest sign of an elaborate education, and the least equivocal mark of early and habitual politeness.

Our Author next determines when the participial *ed* is to be pronounced as an additional syllable, and when not; when *you* is to be so expressed as to rhyme with *new*, and when so as to sound like *ye*; when *my* ought to rhyme with *high*, and when it should be sounded like *me*; when *your* is to be pronounced long, and when short; when *thy* should be used as rhiming with *high*, and when it should sound like *the*. What he has advanced concerning this last mentioned pronoun, we think, will afford both instruction and entertainment to our readers.

From what has been already observed of these pronouns, we are naturally led to suppose, that the word *thy*, when not emphatical, ought to follow the same analogy, and be pronounced like *the*, as we constantly hear it on the stage: but if we reflect that reading or reciting is a perfect picture of speaking, we shall be induced to think that in this particular the stage is wrong. The second personal pronoun *thy*, is not like *my* the common language of every subject; it is used only where the subject is either raised above common life, or sunk below it into the mean and familiar. When the subject is elevated above common life, it adopts a language suitable to such an elevation, and the pronunciation of this language ought

to be as far removed from the familiar as the language itself. Thus, in prayer, pronouncing *thy* like *the*, even when unemphatical, would be intolerable: while suffering *thy*, when unemphatical, to slide into *the* in the pronunciation of slight and familiar composition, seems to lower the sound to the language, and form a proper distinction between different subjects. If therefore it should be asked, why in reciting epic or tragic composition, we ought always to pronounce *thy* rhyming with *high*, while *my*, when unemphatical, sinks into the sound of *me*, it may be answered, because *my* is the common language of every subject, while *thy* is confined to subjects either elevated above common life, or sunk a little below it into the negligent and familiar. When therefore, the language is elevated, the uncommonness of the word *thy*, and its full sound rhyming with *high*, is suitable to the dignity of the subject: but the slender sound like *the* gives it a familiarity only suitable to the language of endearment or negligence, and for this very reason is unfit for the dignity of epic or tragic composition. Thus in the following passages from Milton:

Say first, for heav'n hides nothing from thy view,
Nor the deep tract of hell ———

Parad. Lost. b. 1.

O thou, that with surpassing glory crown'd,
Look'st from thy sole dominion, like the God
Of this new world; at whose sight, all the stars
Hide their diminish'd heads; to thee I call,
But with no friendly voice, and add thy name,
O sun, to tell thee how I hate thy beams.

Parad. Lost, b. 4.

Here pronouncing the pronoun *thy*, like the word *the*, would familiarize and debase the language to prose. The same may be observed of the following passage from the tragedy of Cato.

Now, Cæsar, let thy troops beset our gates,
And bar each avenue; thy gathering fleets
O'erspread the sea, and stop up ev'ry port;
Cato shall open to himself a passage,
And mock thy hopes ———

Here the impropriety of pronouncing *thy* like *the* is palpable: nor would it be much more excusable in the following speech of Portius, in the first scene of the same tragedy.

Thou see'st not that thy brother is thy rival;
But I must hide it, for I know thy temper.
Now, Marcus, now thy virtue's on the proof;
Put forth thy utmost strength, work ev'ry nerve,
And call up all thy father in thy soul: ———

As this pronoun is generally pronounced on the stage, it would be difficult for the ear to distinguish whether the words are

Thou know'st not that *thy* brother is *thy* rival—or
Thou know'st not that *the* brother is *the* rival, &c.

and this may be one reason why the slender pronunciation of *thy* should be avoided as much as possible.

After determining, in our opinion, with peculiar accuracy,
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the nature, force, and extent of emphasis, Mr. Walker investigates that delicate part of reading, which consists in a just inflexion of the voice. The limits of our plan prevent us from transcribing his ingenious remarks upon this subject. We must therefore, refer our readers to the pamphlet itself, which they will find to be the result of taste, observation, and experience.

ART. VII. *Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica*, No. VII. Containing the History and Antiquities of Hinckley, in the county of Leicester; including the Hamlets of Stoke, Dadlington, Wykin, and the Hyde. With a large Appendix, containing some Particulars of the ancient Abbey of Lira in Normandy; Astronomical Remarks, adapted to the Meridian of Hinckley; and Biographical Memoirs of several Persons of Eminence. By John Nichols, F. S. A. Edinb. Corresp. and Printer to the Society of Antiquaries of London. 4to. 7s. 6d. boards.

THIS work is the fruit of a patient industry, and can boast of nothing that is either original or ingenious. It contains, notwithstanding, a few materials which may contribute to general history, and some notices concerning customs, tenures, and lordships, which might give rise to useful speculation in the management of an able antiquarian. The minute and unengaging particulars which refer to the town and parish of Hinckley, and to the hamlets of Stoke, Dadlington, Wykin, and Hyde, are detailed with great diligence and care; and to those who can be amused with such petty informations, this publication will be acceptable.

In the copious Appendix which Mr. Nichols has added to his History of Hinckley, there are collected many biographical anecdotes which are entertaining. Among accounts of obscurer men, we find memoirs of that indefatigable collector, and distinguished scholar, Sir Robert Cotton, of William Burton, the Author of the History of Leicestershire, of Anthony Blackwal, the Author of the Introduction to the Sacred Classics, and of Mr. Dyer, the Author of Grongar Hill and other Poems.

As the article, about Mr. Dyer may amuse some of our Readers, we shall take the liberty to subjoin it.

Of this gentleman (tho' rev. John Dyer,) Dr. Johnson could collect no other account than his own letters to Mr. Duncombe, published with Hughes's correspondence, and the notes added by the editor, afforded. He was born in 1700, the second son of Robert Dyer of Aberglafney in Caermarthenshire, a solicitor of great capacity and note. He passed through Westminster school under the care of Dr. Freind, and was then called home to be instructed in his father's profession. His father died soon, and he took no delight in the study of the law, but
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having

having always amused himself with drawing, resolved to turn painter, and became pupil to Mr. Richardson, an artist then of high reputation, but now better known by his books than his pictures. Having studied awhile under his master, he became, as he tells his friend, an itinerant painter, and wandered about South Wales and the parts adjacent; and about 1727 printed "*Grongar Hill*." Being, probably, unsatisfied with his own proficiency, he, like other painters, travelled to Italy; and coming back in 1740, published "*The Ruins of Rome*." If his poem was written soon after his return, he did not make much use of his acquisitions, whatever they might be; for decline of health, and love of study, determined him to the church. He therefore entered into orders; and, it seems, married about the same time a lady of Colehill, named Enfor; "whose grandmother," says he, "was a Shakespeare, descended from a brother of every body's Shakespeare." His ecclesiastical provision was a long time but slender. His first patron, Mr. Harper, gave him, in 1741, Cakhotp in Leicestershire of eighty pounds a year, on which he lived ten years; and, in April 1757, exchanged it for Belchford in Lincolnshire of seventy-five, which was given him by Lord Chancellor Hardwicke, on the recommendation of a friend to Virtue and the Muses. His condition now began to mend. In 1752; Sir John Heathcote gave him Coningsby, of one hundred and forty pounds a year; and in 1756, when he was LL. B. without any solicitation of his own, obtained for him from the Chancellor, Kirkby on Baac, of one hundred and ten. "I was glad of this," says Mr. Dyer in 1756, "on account of its nearness to me, though I think myself a loser by the exchange, through the expence of the seal, dispensations, journeys, &c. and the charge of an old house, half of which I am going to pull down." The house, which is a very good one, though deserted by the present incumbent, owes much of its improvement to Mr. Dyer. His study, a little room with white walls, ascended to by two steps, had a handsome window to the church-yard, which he stopped up, and opened a less that gave him a full view of the fine church and castle at Tarehall, about a mile off, and of the road leading to it. He also improved the now neglected garden. In May 1757, he was again in mortar; rebuilding a large barn, which a late wind had blown down, and gathering materials for rebuilding above half the parsonage-house at Kirkby. "These," he says, "some years ago, I should have called trifles; but *thy evil days are come*; and the lightest thing, even the grass-hopper, is a burden upon the shoulders of the old and sickly." He had then just published "*The Fleece*," his greatest poetical work; of which Dr. Johnson relates this ludicrous story. Dodley the bookseller was one day mentioning it to a critical visitor, with more expectation of success than the other could easily admit. In the conversation the author's age was asked; and being represented as advanced in life, "He will," said the critic, "be buried in woollen." He did not indeed long outlive that publication, nor long enjoy the increase of his preferments: for he died in 1758. Mr. Gough, who visited Coningsby, Sept. 5, 1782, could find no memorial erected to him in the church, which is a very handsome building, with a lofty square tower

tower open at bottom with three high arches. Mrs. Dyer, on her husband's decease, retired to her friends in Caernarvonshire, where she is supposed to be still resident. In 1756 they had four children living, three girls, and a boy. Of these, Sarah died single. The son, a youth of the most amiable disposition, heir to his father's truly classical taste, and to his uncle's estate of three or four hundred a year in Suffolk, devoted the principal part of his time to travelling; and died in London, as he was preparing to set out on a tour to Italy, in April 1782, at the age of 32. This young gentleman's fortune is divided between two surviving sisters; one of them married to Alderman Hewitt of Coventry; the other, Elizabeth, to the Rev. John Gaunt of Birmingham. Mr. Dyer had some brothers, all of whom were dead in 1756 except one, who was a clergyman, yeoman of his majesty's almonry, lived at Marybone, and had then a numerous family.

With regard to literary merit this publication is exceedingly defective. But the intentions of the Author are meritorious; and the individual who serves the public to the full extent of his talents is a good citizen.

ART. VIII. *Elements of the Branches of Natural Philosophy connected with Medicine*, viz. Chemistry, Optics, Sound, Hydrostatics, Electricity and Physiology, &c. with Bergmann's Tables. By J. Elliot, M. D. 8vo. 5s. boards. Johnson.

THIS laborious condenser of science seems to be animated with a spirit not unlike that which stimulated the minute industry of the copyist of old to reduce the Iliad to the size of a nutshell. The work in question may be numbered among those productions of which it is not difficult to form a just estimate without examining any further than the table of contents. Chemistry occupies 142 pages, Optics 42, Sound 8, Hydrostatics 4, Electricity 15, and Physiology 77. Thus has the address of Dr. Elliot included as much of Natural Philosophy as is connected with a profession that above all others requires its members to be well versed in that extensive science in 211; and Physiology, the corner stone of medicine in 77 8vo pages.

This will not appear surprizing to those who know that the same indefatigable compiler had before enriched medicine with "an account of the symptoms, causes and methods of cure of the diseases incident to the human body," including such as require surgical treatment, together with the virtues and doses of medicinal compositions and simples, in 138 12mo pages.

Should the Reader yet doubt what opinion is to be entertained of these elements, a few quotations will soon satisfy him. "The marine acid when concentrated is lighter than the

“ vitriolic or nitrous acids, of a yellow or strawberry colour, and emits white fumes: it attracts metals more strongly than other acids; with the fossil alkali, it forms common salt, and with volatile alkali, sal ammoniac; it is dislodged from alkalis by the vitriolic and nitrous, but not by the vegetable acid; it is obtainable in a separate state in the form of air.”

“ Aqua Regia is not a simple acid, but a compound of the nitrous and marine, it is distinguishable from others by its property of dissolving gold.”

“ Copper is calcinable by heat, of a reddish colour, not fusible but in a great heat, and soluble in all the acids.

“ Lead is fusible in a very moderate heat and not difficultly calcinable. It is the softest of all the metals, and also the heaviest excepting gold, platina, and quicksilver.”

Such is the information afforded by Dr. Elliot, concerning objects so important in medicine and various arts. The other parts of his subject are treated in the same cursory manner. The compends of Macquer, Neumann, Rowning, Cavallo, &c. are, we apprehend, in the hands of every medical student: and till science has been enriched by further discoveries, or some happier mode of arrangement has been contrived, he may well be content with them: after they have been diligently perused, these *Elements* will afford little instruction.

It would indeed have been no easy task to conjecture what description of readers were designed to be benefited by the work before us, if the Author himself had not taken care to inform us that “ it was designed, rather as an introduction to, than a complete treatise on the subjects mentioned, and that if it excites a taste for this useful kind of study, his end will be answered.” How this end can be answered by such a dry recital of matters familiar to those who are at all acquainted with the sciences here abridged, and exhibited in a dress not likely to allure those to whom they are unknown, it is difficult to conceive. If an admirer of ancient literature in order to promote the study of the elegant writers of antiquity, should publish an index of the words contained in them, he would appear to act just as rationally. If Dr. Elliot would direct the public attention towards natural philosophy (a pursuit however which at present seems not to be neglected,) let him digest a better plan, and enter into more minute details, let him display the ample means it affords of gratifying curiosity, improving the productions of art, and explaining the appearances of nature.

In a work, of which the whole difficulty consists in compiling from compilations and abridging abridgements, it cannot

not be expected that the doctrines should allow much scope for criticism; yet it may be observed, that the speculations on heat and phlogiston are improperly introduced; what is considered by many as doubtful, and by most as false, ought not surely to have been taught in an elementary book, where beginners should meet with nothing that is not founded on indubitable proofs; and more useful matter might easily have been found to substitute in their stead.

Dr. Elliot's Physiological Essays and Philosophical Observations, we believe, met with no unfavourable reception from the public; they were considered as the production of a writer, who though he discovered no uncommon talents or extent of learning, was too ingenious to be despised, and too modest to be repulsed; hence he has probably been encouraged to send into the world, several compilations which seem not likely to advance his interest, and certainly will not increase his reputation.

ART. IX. No. I. *Of the picturesque Beauties of Shakspeare*, being a Selection of Scenes from the Works of that great Author; intended to contain the most striking Incidents and Descriptions of each Play; in Oval Prints, Six Inches high by Four and a half wide. Published at Charles Taylor's, No. 8. Dyer's Buildings, Holborn; and at Mr. Taylor's, Bookseller, Holborn. 4to. 5s. stitched.

THE title page sufficiently explains the nature of this periodical publication*. But Shakspeare and mediocrity should never be united. The painter, to express his ideas should possess at least a portion of his soul of fire. We cannot congratulate the present artists on the success of their undertaking; but we think the public is indebted to them for the hint it may furnish to those who might attempt the arduous task with more probability of reputation. Could Cipriani and Bartolozzi be induced by a generous subscription to exert *all their powers* on this subject, we might expect something worthy of our immortal bard.

We mean not however to say that Mr. Taylor and his assistants have not produced a work above the common run of title page engravings. In that line, though not at the top, yet they stand pretty high on the scale; and in that line we wish them success. But, that a person, able to judge of the arts of engraving and design, and at the same time capable of relishing the beauties of the *Avonian muse*, will be highly

* It consists of four prints, the subjects from "As you like it." The 1st is "Rosalind giving her chain to Orlando," the 2d is Orlando and Adam," the 3d "Orlando and Oliver," and the 4th "the bloody napkin shewn to Rosalind."

gratified by their labours, is what these gentlemen must not expect. The bold and glowing thoughts of the poet are but ill expressed by the timid and laborious touches of Mr. Taylor's needle, or the tameness of design apparent in his coadjutors.

Such in general is our opinion of the work before us, which we shall endeavour to confirm by a few additional strictures.

To each print, beside the general fault of laborious littleness in the engraving, and tameness of design, the following objections may be made.

In the first, Celia, who is described by the poet as shorter than Rosalind, is represented as of equal height; and, instead of that youth and gaiety which Shakespeare's Celia possesses, the artists have given her the face and severity of a Roman matron. The Flemish lumpishness of countenance which they have bestowed on Rosalind, but ill suits the playfulness and vivacity of her character. For, though the tender scene which is delineated, should give a seriousness to the face, it by no means justifies the Belgian cast of features with which we are presented. In the same print, the slashed breeches of Orlando, vie with stone in solidity.

The second print we think the best upon the whole. The figure of Adam is preferable to that of Orlando, the air of the head, and the expression in the countenance are equally good, and the hair and beard, are touched with a lightness and freedom in which these artists do not usually excell: the drawing of the right hand is to be commended, and the position is natural; but five upper joints to the four fingers of the left hand appear, *to us at least*, one too many. In the figure of Orlando either the thighs are too long, or the legs too short.

In the third print, the fore shortened head of Oliver, from some faults in the drawing, in the management of the light and shade, together with the hardness of the hair and beard, produces a most disagreeable effect: it is a mass of black and white spots without *relievo*. The astonishment and horror in the countenance of Orlando seem to have been well enough conceived, but the execution is bad, though the artist has so overworked the face as to give it a dirty and muddy appearance. The snake, instead of gliding away, on seeing Orlando, according to its natural instinct, and according to Shakespeare, is advancing towards him with erect crest. The head of the lionsess, though very indifferently executed, might serve well enough for that of a sleeping lionsess: but we appeal to all who have eyes if there be in it any thing of the "cat-like watch" which Shakespeare

speare has depicted, that eager glare in the eye with which animals of prey regard their victims.

Oliver in the fourth print stands well upon his legs : we wish he had a better left hand ; it has a strong resemblance to the *stuffed* hand of a *layman* ; as part of the hill, which serves as a back ground, has, to a cloud. The back grounds, with the leafing of the distant trees, are, for the most part, stiff, heavy, and unmasterly.

One general observation, and we have done. When there is a succession of prints, where the same persons are introduced, the features of those persons should be preserved throughout as much as possible. Hogarth had great excellence in this way, of which any one may be convinced who examines the works of that extraordinary man. This is by no means the case with Messrs. Taylor, Stodhart, and Smirke. After having made us acquainted with *their* Rosalind, Celia, and Orlando in the first print, we are obliged to be introduced to them afresh whenever we meet them in the other prints. They put on such various appearances that it is impossible to recognize them.

ART. X. *An Estimate of the Comparative Strength of Britain during the present and four preceding Reigns ; and of the Losses of her Trade from every War since the Revolution.* By George Chalmers. To which is added, an Essay on Population, by the Lord Chief Justice Hale, London. 4to. 5s. sewed. Dilly and Bowen.

THE Author of this Estimate, or as he modestly styles himself, " The Compiler of these sheets, having collected for a greater work various documents with regard to the national resources, thought it his duty to make an humble tender to the public of that authentic intelligence, which amid the wailings of despondency had brought conviction and comfort to his mind."

There is a constant disposition in mankind to admire, and to praise the past ; and to undervalue and blame the present times. From the days of Queen Elizabeth to the present, a period wherein this nation underwent the happiest change, twelve months have scarcely passed away, in which a treatise has not been published, either by ignorance, by good-intentions, or design, deploring the loss of our commerce, the depopulation of the kingdom, and the ruin of the state. Mr. Chalmers, in opposition to such melancholy views, gives a very comfortable account both of our population and trade. He demonstrates with great accuracy of investigation, and precision of judgment, " that in every war there is a point of depression in trade, as there is in all things, beyond which

which it does not decline ; from which it gradually rises, unless it meets with additional checks, beyond the extent of its former greatness :” and shews, on probable grounds, that the population of Great Britain, which has been gradually increasing since the *Conquest*, is at the present moment nearly nine millions.

The plan which Mr. Chalmers follows in estimating the resources of this country is this. He takes a survey of the trade, commerce, revenue, national debt, and, in general, of the national strength and resources of Great Britain at the commencement, during the time, and after the conclusion of every war since the Revolution, in the reigns of King William, Queen Anne, George I. George II. and of his present Majesty. He states an account of our traffic with every European country, and traces the progress of our trade with each, from the beginning of the current century to the commencement of the *present*, shall we say—or late hostilities ? From the most minute details, and acute investigations, he concludes, that the resources of Great Britain have gradually increased, and are still increasing.

‘ An historical detail of the trade of our factories in Africa and Asia, as well as of our colonies in America, was designedly omitted, because it is a fact known and acknowledged, that their traffic has flourished prodigiously : our colonial commerce has prospered, since we have fostered it by every means which interested traders could devise, or the mercantile system admitted ; we have cherished it by bounties, by drawbacks, by the obstructions that have been thrown in the way of European rivals. If we again compare trade to a fluid, we may easily perceive, that when mounds were raised on the banks, and shoals were formed in the channel, it would find a vent by a thousand passages : it was directed in its course to the colonies, and it therefore no longer ran with its former force into the several European ports. In every community there can only exist a certain quantity of stock, either for carrying on its agriculture, its manufactures, its commerce, or for the aggregate of its whole mercantile transactions. If part of the capital, which had been usefully employed in husbandry, is withdrawn, in order to cultivate the cane and the coffee of the West Indies, our domestic agriculture must necessarily suffer in the exact proportion to the sum taken away : if the business of ship-building is no longer carried on near the banks of our rivers, but on those of our colonies, that important manufacture can be no longer considered as a national one. If a portion of the capitals, which had been engaged in transacting our commerce with our European correspondents, is diverted to the plantations, our European traffic must necessarily languish ; it must decline in the exact proportion to the amount of the stock withdrawn*. When these principles are applied to the foregoing details,

* This subject has been amply discussed and finely illustrated by
Dr.

details, we shall find in the comparison the true reason why some branches of trade have actually withered, why others have not greatly prospered. And it has been shewn by the numbers of our shipping cleared outwards, since they were excluded from our colonies, that a revulsion had taken place, whereby the capital which had been gradually invested in the plantation-trade, was again employed in its original business. They who amidst their delusions presumed, that the mechanic, the merchant, or the mariner could be induced to sit down inactive and idle, only evinced how little they had studied the science of mankind, who delight in activity and adventures. As Spain had been formerly ruined by withdrawing her wealth from domestic industry, and turning her energy to distant enterprizes, more than by the emigrations of her people, or the importation of the metals; so England ran similar risques in the pursuit of colonization, from similar causes producing similar effects. It was the greatness of her capitals and credit, the skill and the diligence of her people, and other means that cannot be so easily described, which have prevented her colonial policy, in respect to trade, from introducing greater disorder into her European commerce, and bringing on a real decline.

Having examined the strength of England at the epoch of the American troubles, having enquired into her losses of trade from the most complicated struggles in which she was ever engaged, and demonstrated the superiority of her navigation during the present war over that of the former; and also, having taken a transient view of the trade of Scotland during both the last and the present war, Mr. Chalmers concludes that,

‘He who has entered into the spirit of this interesting comparison may ask, What then is the amount of our commercial losses during the present war? Admitting that our foreign commerce during our existing hostilities, and during the war of 1755, were precisely of the same extent, (though the superiority of our navigation amid our present contests forbids such a supposition) the answer is, We have only lost by the war the amount of the annual gains of an increasing industry and traffic from 1763 to 1775, since we nearly enjoy now what we enjoyed at any time previous to the peace of Paris. Were we to figure the trade of Britain, foreign and domestic, as an Atlas, sustaining her affairs mercantile and political, we might find an argument and an illustration from the progressive stages of the growth of man. We have seen, that during the last war he exerted all the activity and the vigour of youth; that during the present he exercised all the energy and the force of manhood: when the embarrassments of the former period pressed him with additional incumbrances, he shrunk from his load with the suppleness of his age, but recovered his position with his natural agility: when the complicated difficulties of the present wars heaped upon him additional weight, he bent reluctantly under his burden;

Dr. Adam Smith, who merits the praise of having formerly strengthened our morals, and lately enlightened our intellects. [See the Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations.]

but,

but, having easily collected his powers, he stood firm in his might under all his pressures, because his sinews had been strung, and his joints had been knit.'

If this Allegory be as just as it is expressive and elegant, it is undoubtedly one of the best that has ever been imagined.

To the foregoing brief extracts, which the conjuncture of the times, as well as the importance of their subject, cannot fail to render interesting to every reader, we shall subjoin another, in which a concise and elegant account is given of the connection that subsists between human wants and industry; between industry and food; and between food and numbers.

'The Lord Chief Justice Hale formerly, and Sir James Stewart and the Count de Buffon lately, considered man, as to his bodily faculties, merely as an animal, directed by the same instincts, and urged by the same motives of procreation as other animals, and, like them, subsisted afterwards or destroyed by similar means. Among the irrational classes, we see the young supported by the mother till they are able to provide for themselves: The offspring of man, as we have all felt, are maintained during their childhood and youth by the parents, who divide with the objects of their tender care the means of their own subsistence. It is instinct, then, which is the cause of procreation; but it is food which keeps population full and accumulates numbers. We behold the force of the first principle in the vast numbers of animals, either of the fish of the sea, the fowls of the air, or the beasts of the field, which are yearly produced: we perceive the essential consequence of the last from the multitudes that annually perish for want. Experience has shewn to what an immense extent the domestic animals may be multiplied, by providing proportional subsistence. In the same manner man has been found to exist and to multiply in exact proportion to the standard of his means of sustenance, and to the measure of his comforts. How few are the wretched people whom our voyagers discovered shivering in the blast and pining in misery around the southern extremity of America! The savage tribes who hunt over that extensive continent are known to be more populous, because they are blessed with more ample food and raiment. Yet, the most potent body of the American Indians cannot be compared, as to numbers, with the Tartar hords of Asia, who derive their support, not only from the productions of the earth, but from the cares of the shepherd. How inconsiderable, however, are the numbers of the most potent nations of Tartary, when contrasted with the prodigious populousness of their neighbours of China, who find that subsistence, which a barren soil has denied them, in an unremitting industry. And universal history seems to demonstrate, that every people have increased or diminished in proportion to the means of existence and comfort which they enjoyed either from nature or art. During the celebrated times of antiquity, the citizens, who alone were free, derived their support, not indeed from their own diligence,

gence, but from the labour of those whom they had overcome in battle. During the subsequent centuries of superstition, whole communities were maintained in idleness by the mistaken charity of the devout. In the progress of refinement and of freedom, men were gradually pressed by wants which they found no one ready to remove; and, being at length forced to labour, as the only mode of gratification, they derived in the end not only the *physical necessity*, but real independence, *from the sweat of their brows*.

Such were the considerations which induced Sir James Stewart to conclude, *that wants promote industry; industry gains food; and food increases numbers*: Among the ancients, men laboured because they were slaves to others; among the moderns, every one labours because he is a slave to his own passions. When mankind had been thus induced to labour, since they were free; when by cultivation the earth has poured out plenty, which all may enjoy, as each has learned that he has an equivalent in his power, we behold the energetic principle of population exerting its active powers of production: and here we discover the origin of barter, of husbandry, of manufacture, of commerce. What numbers were assembled on the marshes of the Adriatic, by a desire of safety, amid the wreck of the Roman empire, and were afterwards augmented by diligence! What multitudes were collected in the free cities of Italy, during the barbarism of the thirteenth century, by means of industry and traffic! What greatness and renown were acquired by the Hanse-towns of the Baltic, in the subsequent age, through the instrumentality of an active commerce and navigation! What populousness, and opulence, and splendour, were gained by the Netherlands, in the following century, by their energy, their manufactures, and traffic, while England was yet unhappily debilitated by her political system, perhaps more than by her civil wars! Hence Mr. Hume justly concludes, that if we would bring to some determination the question concerning the populousness of ancient and modern times, it will be requisite to compare both the *domestic and political* situations of the two periods, in order to judge of the facts by their moral causes: because, if every thing else be equal, it seems natural to expect, that where there are the wisest institutions, and the most happiness, there will also be the most people.

The conclusion which this most respectable Author draws from the whole of his observations and reasonings on this important subject, is as follows:

SUCH then is the estimate of our comparative resources, of the losses and gains of our commerce, and of the augmented numbers of our people since the Revolution. He who has honoured the foregoing documents with an attentive perusal, may probably be induced to ask, What valid reason is there for relinquishing hope, by despairing of the Commonwealth? The individual who desponds, indulges a passion the most to be deplored, because it is the most incurable. The nation, which in any conjuncture entertains doubts of her own ability, or thinks of submission to her unprovoked foes, is already conquered, since she is enslaved to her irresolution or her fears.

fears. The weakness of the state, during a war of unexampled embarrassments, consists partly in the division of its members, placed as they are on every quarter of the globe, and to the consequent dispersion of its vast force; but perhaps more to the dissimilarity of the principles and views of the leading characters in the nation. While the empire remains entire, there may be applied to the former evils temporary palliatives, but not an absolute cure. While the passions of men continue to produce their accustomed effects, domestic unanimity, however desirable, may be wished for without reasonable expectation; and every lover of his country ought therefore to pray, that whoever may be called to the helm, during the storm of the times, may be directed in their counsels and actions by wisdom, and moderation, and vigour.

Mr. Chalmers has subjoined to his book two appendixes. The first is an essay on population, which, he informs us is nothing more than the tenth chapter of "that elaborate performance, *The primitive Origination of Mankind considered, by Lord Chief Justice Hale*; a book, which, if piety of purpose, ability of performance, and candour of disquisition, are estimable qualities, ought to occupy every closet, as well as the cabinets of the curious." The republication of old tracts is sometimes very useful and commendable; and a subject is often treated with greater depth, method, and perspicuity in an old, than in a new book. In reality the writings of the present day contain little that can be considered as altogether new: they are occupied for the most part with sentiments that had often occurred to men of former times, with objections which had been often raised, and with confutations which had successively been repeated. The truth of these observations will be fully illustrated by a perusal of this treatise of Judge Hale's. The Editor therefore could not have offered a more valuable present to the public, than the mature sentiments of so great a master of evidence, and so judicious a writer, with regard to an interesting subject, which has lately so much engaged the pens of the ingenious and the learned. The end of this treatise is to shew, 1. That upon the supposition of the existence of what the Author calls *reductives*, as famines, plagues, wars, floods, and conflagrations, they could not have been of such "efficacy to correct the increase or excess of mankind, as to render it compatible with an eternal duration." 2. "That *de facto*, notwithstanding all these *reductives*, the world hath in all ages increased."

The execution of this design merits all the praise that Mr. Chalmers bestows on it. And we shall only remark that as the views of commercial speculation and philosophy, turn the attention of men of genius to the subject of population in the present century: so the concerns of piety and

reli-

religion, made the same subject an object of attention to learned and good men in the last. Nor is this the only instance, in which religion has been subservient to the purposes of literature, and general knowledge. It was religious controversy that stimulated the revival of literature; and preserved, in the darkness of the middle ages, some rays of the light that shone forth in the brightest days of Greece and Rome.

The second Appendix consists of corrections, additions, and retractions, which Mr. Chalmers has stated in a brief manner, in consequence of his having discovered, since *THE ESTIMATE* was printed, several documents, which, in some instances contradict, but in more confirm, the reasonings contained in that publication.

We cannot dismiss this excellent performance without declaring, in the strongest manner, our opinion of its merit. Mr. Chalmers is patient, and acute, in his investigations; and in his reasonings, judicious, solid, and candid. And though the subjects he undertakes to illustrate, admit not, in general, of the embellishments of style and composition, yet, from the specimens already produced, it will appear evident to the Reader, that a vigorous and lively conception, joined to a clear judgment, has bestowed on this writer, a nervous and manly eloquence.

ART. XI. *Human Happiness, or the Sceptic.* A Poem. In six Cantos. By Thomas Holcroft, Author of *Duplicity*, a Comedy. 4to. 3s. L. Davis.

NOTHING can give us such true pleasure in the disagreeable task of inspecting errors, and developing the principles of false taste, as to be able to say they are exceeded by the beauties of imagination, and the glow of genius. We lament to see a charming picture with an occasional gross daub, or a distorted feature, and more so, that it is our office to direct the eye of criticism upon these blunders; but we have great consolation when they are overpowered, and almost lost in strength of colouring, originality of design, and happiness of execution. The poem under consideration is in the predicament alluded to. It has many defects, but it has more excellencies. The subject is an enquiry into happiness; the purport to deny that it exists. To compose a poem on a metaphysical question is no very inviting task, nor is it probable on a slight inspection, that the poet should attract many readers; yet this has been several times attempted in our own language with success. *Alma Mater*, and the *Essay on Man*, are read by all who have

have a taste for poetry. The plan of the Sceptic is similar to that of *Alma Mater*: and the Author speaks towards the latter end of the third canto of the difficulty he had to keep clear of the same thoughts, not forgetting to pay a very handsome and a very poetical compliment to Prior. Easy dialogue was evidently the best vehicle for this kind of argument, which is meant to be, and is, whimsical and witty; but the poet is guilty of an error, by laying himself under an unnecessary restraint: one of his speakers is a dependant on the other, which deprives him of the liberty of making that firm opposition to the principles of his superior as he apparently is inclined to do, or of returning those sarcastic replies which he might, had he been his equal, have found frequent opportunities of doing. The principle of the poem too is wrong; it tends to make us dissatisfied with life; but this, the poet has very artfully undermined, by letting the reader perceive, in the arguments of William, that he disbelieves even while he asserts. Some will likewise find the same fault with him as Pope did with Prior, when he declared how happy he should have been to have written *Alma Mater*, but for its scepticism. As this, however, is matter of opinion, concerning which different men entertain different ideas, we shall not venture to obtrude our own upon our Readers, but suffer them to determine for themselves. There is one advantage which the Author has derived from a supposition of the negation of happiness, and that is the moral he has thence deduced, which is so strong, pointed, and conclusive, that we are persuaded our Readers will thank us for giving it among the extracts.

‘And should you think these doctrines vain,

Hear, Will, the moral they contain.
 So short a time are mortals twirl’d
 About this transitory world;
 (For he who tarries longest in it
 Can scarce be said to live a minute)
 So little do we truly know,
 What shall bring future weal or woe;
 Such trifles are the things we prize,
 In Truth and sober Reason’s eyes;
 So futile and incompetent
 To make one blessing permanent;
 That he who’d ignominious live,
 For any good this world can give;
 Would condescend to recollect
 The loss of Worth, and Worth’s respect;
 Or, to obtain some private end,
 To guilt, or meanness could descend,
 And act, from self-applause exempt,
 What sinks him into self-contempt;

Could

Could see how short, how vague, how vain
 Are joys, and all that joys contain;
 Yet, seeing this, could be betray'd,
 Doth Common-sense so much degrade,
 Such ample infamy deserves,
 If he with such conviction swerves,
 No epithet, by man express'd
 That Wit or Malice can suggest,
 Or scurril Rancour e'er devis'd,
 Can say how such a fool shou'd be despis'd.'

It is with pain we are obliged to bring a very heavy drawback upon this best part of praise, the moral tendency of the work. The reasonings which begin at the eighth page, and proceed, while that subject continues, is flagrantly immoral, and it is the more so, because the poetry is sometimes delightful.

The Author proceeds in the same kind of strain for half the canto, and we almost wish we could say the verses were as dull and disgusting as they are attractive. He is conscious of his deserts for taking these liberties, and wishes to laugh the Critic into mercy. Thus he makes Sir Thomas say :

'Howe'er, I am glad our evagation,
 With these free hints on fecundation,
 Are but by way of conversation.
 For, were they meant t' appear in print,
 Tho' I, instead of flesh, were flint,
 I would not feel the goose-quill rod,
 No, not for fifty pounds by ———.
 Which Critic would remorseless thwack,
 With iteration, on my back.'

His profane use of the name of God, opens our eyes with a kind of glare upon his audacity, but the sense of feeling and anxiety with which he pronounces it, half closes them again. There are a few verses towards the close of the canto, which for wit and satire have great merit.

'Ma'am Venus, ever in mutation,
 Gives most light at her elongation;
 Our Venus too, without a scoff,
 Shines brightest when she's farthest off;
 For Bel a wife, and Bel a maid,
 Are opposite as light and shade.
 Your women, when in hopes of wivery,
 Appear as they were carv'd of ivory;
 And, though we see they carry noses,
 They surely smell to nought but roses;
 But, when unloos'd the virgin zone is,
 Your alabaster flesh and bone is,
 Your maid of snow, some short time a'ter,
 Melts into frothy muddy water.'

In the second canto the Author pursues his subject more steadily, and describes in a very whimsical manner, the effect that the imagination has upon our happiness : his Grub-street poet is an original and striking picture on a very hackneyed topic, and his simile of the sheep and the patriot is as perfect in all its allusions as it can be. Many of his readers will differ with him in politics, but there are none of them but will acknowledge he has given a very pathetic description of the miseries of civil dissention.

The third canto is sportive and fanciful, but the fourth is that in which he gives the greatest proofs of a poetic genius. His dreams are original ; they rise gradually from the ludicrous to the terrible and the sublime. They are a faithful description of the almost miraculous wanderings of the mind in sleep, and contain an extensive display of a strong imagination. They, however, are not faultless ; the colouring is sometimes overcharged ; and they are not always sufficiently delicate. These are errors to which the whole poem is too frequently subject. As a proof of the poetic powers of which we have spoken, we shall present our readers with the following extracts from his last dream.

‘ I went one night, about eleven,
To bed—or, rather—went to Heaven.
‘Twas in the latter end of spring,
My heart was light as Wood-lark’s wing ;
My health was good, my spirits better,
My mind without a single fetter ;
By cares nor crosses was I teaz’d,
Nor spleen, nor passion, on me seiz’d :’

‘ I went to bed, then, thus dispos’d,
And, as I guess, not long had doz’d
Before I fell, by some blest chance,
Into a kind of heav’nly trance ;
Unconscious I of sleep or bed,
No pillow now supports my head,
Nor bolts, nor bars, nor walls restrain,
Nor heavy limbs my soul detain ;
But, gliding on, by swift degrees,
I seem to be where’er I please :
I lightly leap o’er brook, or briar,
And step—as far as I desire.’

‘ While down the winding vale I stray,
Upon an ivory pipe I play.
A various and delightful lay.
My fingers touch as though they flew,
Each note’s so sweet, and yet so new,
I play and listen to the sound,
From rock to rock I lightly bound ;

Sweet echos ev'ry cavern fill,
While my agility and skill
A mixture breed of strange surmize,
Of doubt, of pleasure, and surprize!
Encourag'd by the past, I try
If it be possible to fly :
When, strange to think, with utmost ease
I sail adown the pleasant breeze.
Amazement new, and new demur,
Again, and yet again, recur.
Have I my former self forgot ?
Or is it me—or is it not ?
Again I try, again I find,
My body lighter than the wind ;
Till, wanton grown, with joy and mirth,
I spurn the bosom of the earth ;
Into the middle region mount,
And cities, seas, and kingdoms count :
Strait recollect, and now behold,
Whate'er I'ad read, or had been told.
My mind, my sight, my soul expand ;
I view the near and distant land,
Each object see, examine all,
And understand both great and small !⁹

The attempt to fly ; the amazement at succeeding ; the doubting whether the body can really be lighter than the wind ; the joy at being confirmed in the belief ; the spurning the bosom of the earth ; the view of cities, seas, and kingdoms, and the expansion of the faculties to the comprehending of all, are so natural, as well as elevated, that we seem to wonder there is nothing of the same kind to be found among the poets*.

Paradoxical, however, as it may at first appear, some of these verses may be said to have been burlesqued before they

* There is a short contrast of pleasure and terror in dreams in the sixty-ninth, and two following stanzas of Dryden's *Annus Mirabilis*, in which the poet has reached the true sublime, (one line excepted) most happily indeed. The concluding verse,

“ They wake with horror, and dare sleep no more.”

Is admirable. But these are very different from, and very short, when compared with those under consideration in the text. We by no means, however, would be understood to say, that dreams have not found their way into poetry ; they have been frequently used with great success both by ancient and modern writers, and, by none perhaps more happily, than a modern poet. Mr. Hayley, in his *Triumphs of Temper*, has dreams so beautiful, that we could wish him to dream thus for ever. The originality of their use and construction, is the thing we speak of in the present instance.

were written. Most of our Readers will probably remember to have seen the following humorous epigram :

“ As in his cart Giles Jolt a sleeping lay,
 “ Some pilfering villains stole his team away :
 “ Giles wakes, and cries, what’s here ! a dickins ! what ?
 “ Why how now ! *Am I Giles ? or am I not ?*
 “ If he, I’ve lost six geldings to my smart,
 “ If not—ods boddikins—I’ve found a cart.”

The similarity of sensation, of surprize, and of expression in both instances, will excite a smile, but will not destroy our admiration.

The fifth and sixth cantos are chiefly argumentative, but with so strong a degree of humour and whim, as to make them entertaining ; they likewise prove the Author well acquainted with metaphysics and metaphysical writers. His sentiments on toleration are liberal, and worthy of the age ; they are expressed in an ironical flow of satire, which exposes the ridicule of endeavouring to make men all of one opinion on religious matters.

With respect to the poem, as a whole, it has great merit. The Author seldom loses sight of his subject, and when he does, he brings his reader back so naturally, that his digression becomes a part of his argument.

The versification is flowing and harmonious in the serious parts, and hudibrastic in the comic. The passages we have selected will supply examples : though with respect to rhyme, there are others perhaps more whimsical. As,

‘ It was by this kind of homogeny,
 King Priam had so vast a progeny.’

Again :

‘ And his puff’d down who their fire flames scorns.
 Like Jericho at blasts of rams-horns.’

Again :

‘ These man-flesh butchers with their fly-flops, }
 These Anthropophaginian Cyclops, }
 That tap who never had the hydrops.’ }

Again :

‘ Leaves not a rat, cat, hog, or dog an eye,
 But cleaves them as you’d cleave mahogany.’

In this, however, as in the more essential parts of composition, though he often excels, he sometimes offends. He occasionally defers the rhyme by inserting two verses between, and now and then writes in alternate verse, following the practice of La Fontaine and the French fabulists. But as this is only done seldom, it has a sudden, harsh, and disagreeable effect, and is like waking a man from a pleasant dream by an electric shock. Neither is he always enough circum-

circumspect in the exactness of the rhyme—*grown, down—mood, underflood—tony, money—evil, devil, &c. &c.* rhyme to the eye but not to the ear; there are others that neither rhyme to eye nor ear. The most material defects in the poem are those we have before observed, an indelicacy that sometimes approaches grossness, and an overcharge of colouring that in certain spots becomes daubing. The Author's imagination has occasionally galloped away with his judgment, but there is a sufficient blaze of poetry to illuminate and obscure his faults, and recommend them to many of those who may hereafter hear his beauties praised.

ART. XII. *The History of the Life of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.* 8vo. 4s. boards. Kearsley.

COMMON fame depends on common understandings; and whether it be employed in panegyric, or in obloquy, it is indiscriminate, extravagant, and unjust. The favourite of a people, or the object of their detestation, is forced above or below humanity; and every thing relating to him is exaggerated by a peculiar species of falshood. It is the business of the historian to remove the effect of this error, founded on the ignorance and impetuosity of the people. And we are sorry to observe, this is not done by the Author of the work under our present consideration.

He begins, as biographers usually do, with the extraction and early pursuits of his hero; introduces him into Parliament, where his eloquence was taken notice of in the administrations of Sir Robert Walpole and Lord Carteret, and procured him the office of Paymaster General under Mr. Pelham. The pliability and versatility of Mr. Pitt's character, when the alluring objects of ambition were before him, are here touched with a tender and reluctant hand. The Author's apology for Mr. Pitt's change of principles and conduct, when he came into office, is among the most ingenious passages of the work; and we will lay it before our Readers, as it may enable them to judge of his talents.

THE generality, I believe, will be inclined to question the sincerity of this conversion, and will represent to themselves Mr. Pitt, as engaged in the support of measures, which, in his own breast, he peremptorily disapproved. But they know little of the human heart, who suppose, that, in such cases, the judgment evidently points one way, and interest and inclination another. Perhaps, there does not exist, upon the face of the earth, an hypocrisy unmixed and pure. In order to deceive others, we first deceive ourselves. Interest and ambition not only alter our language, but

our minds. They attract our choice, they warp our understanding, and they cloud our discernment. It must also be remembered, that change of mind is scarcely ever the result of sudden conviction, but almost universally produced by a slow and imperceptible progress. In the complication of motives then, by which our conduct is governed, it is seldom possible, to ascribe its proportion to the influence of each : and, though it were easy, we should hardly be much inclined to so unpleasant a task. Mr. Pitt was probably partly induced to this second recession, from his original line of conduct, by the motives we stated in the former case. His conversion may be partly ascribed, to the power, exhibited in a thousand instances, of the fascinating manners of Mr. Pelham. And, I believe, the rebellion had, in some degree, the same influence upon his comprehensive soul, that it certainly had upon every weaker mind, to increase his loyalty, and improve his complaisance.*

He then exhibits his Hero, as a most illustrious figure in the history of the period in which he lived. The conduct of Mr. Pitt, as Secretary of State ; and the causes of his dismissal ; the coalition of parties, on which his brilliant administration was founded ; and the reasons of his resignation on the introduction of Lord Bute into power ; are related with the warmth of a young and credulous devotee, not with the temper and penetration of an historian.

In relating the circumstances which led Mr. Pitt into a lucrative office, sheltered from the inconveniencies of responsibility, and introduced him, a pensioner to an administration he despised, into the House of Lords, are gilded over with some degree of art. But here the Writer can exercise only the talents of an apologist. When Lord Chatham takes the lead in opposition, and directs the thunder of his eloquence against the American war ; when he produces plans of conciliation with the colonies, and delineates a system of government for India, hardly any epithet in Johnson's Dictionary is left unemployed in the panegyric of this great man. He is ' the last of Britons—the first of statesmen ' the greatest political character that ever existed—his mind ' had a native royalty—he felt himself born to command—the fable of Orpheus was realised in him, he led millions [of beasts we presume] in his train ; he subdued the rugged savage, and disarmed the fangs of malignity and envy.' His eloquence was beyond description—the astonishing extent of his views—the mysterious comprehension of his plans, did not set him above little things—for in a far ' humbler walk, like Omnipotence*, the complication and ' minuteness of the lesser motions, that were essential to his ' grand machine, could not distract him.'

It is with such passages, that almost every page of this work is *ornamented*. If it be the production of a young man, it may be useful to point them out as blemishes in respect to composition, as well as offences against the chaste veracity of impartial history. If it be written by a person, *matured in his habits*, we shall only have his indignation, or pretended contempt, for our pains.

Lord Chatham's indisposition in the House of Lords, which just preceded his death, is thus described :

'As the duke' (of Richmond) 'drew near the end of his reply, lord Chatham seemed much agitated. He immediately attempted to rise: But his feelings proved too strong, for his debilitated constitution. He suddenly pressed his hand, upon his stomach, and fell down in a convulsive fit. The house was instantly thrown, into the greatest alarm. The business of the day was at an end. The strangers, below the bar, who were uncommonly numerous, were ordered to withdraw. The house adjourned. His lordship was presently, in some degree, restored; but he never perfectly recovered, and this scene proved the prelude, to his death. That melancholy event took place on the eleventh of May 1778.

*MANY circumstances concur, to render the scene, I have described, singularly interesting. The crisis, with respect to public affairs; and the question, which was to be, that day, decided, were of the first magnitude. It was a question, that taken in all its parts, could never recur again. They were to determine on peace, or war. They had already been worried, upon a narrower scene; and they were to determine, whether they would engage, exhausted, as they were, upon a scene, widened, to an extent, that the mind of longest reach, could set no bounds to it. They were about, to commit the very existence of their country, for an object, which every unbiaſed mind might then have pronounced, absolutely unattainable. They were about to commit it, for an object, of which, at least, it was very doubtful, whether it were legitimate.—But, why should I say, doubtful? The impartiality of history consists, in manifesting no respect of persons, or of party. It is the farthest, in the world, from consisting, in mincing truth, or trifling with the eternal, immutable laws of rectitude.—The object then was perfectly and evidently illegitimate. Every country has an inherent, unalienable right to assert its independency.—They were to chuse then, between the imaginary dignity, which consists, in persevering to do wrong: and that true greatness, whose first object is justice; that "long-sighted and strong-nerved" policy, that dares to counteract all the private feelings of humanity, in the pursuit of rectitude.

On the whole, this work, though written with animation, is, like many pieces of modern biography, defective in the most essential requisites of a valuable performance. It furnishes no information, but what may be had in the news-papers. The Author draws the character of his Hero from popular and indiscriminate applause; and the additions

which proceed more immediately from himſelf, are taudry and glaring. His language is ſprightly ; but it is affected : his rhetorical flowers are falſe and artificial ; not thoſe which are cultivated, in the foil of truth and nature, by the hands of Addiſon, Bolingbroke, and Swift.

ART. XIII. *The Myſterious Husband*, a Tragedy. By Richard Cumberland, Eſq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. C. Dilly and J. Walter.

THERE has not been a tragedy for many years, perhaps not ſince the Gameſter by Mr. Moore, in which the paſſions have been ſo forcibly roused by the conduct of the fable, as in the Myſterious Husband. In ſome parts of it indeed, the ſame objection may be made to the latter, as was to the former, that is, that the paſſion of horror inſtead of terror is excited, and that the diſtreſs is almoſt too deep to be borne. This however is the fault of genius, and is infinitely preferable to inſpidity. Our tragedies ever ſince the ſucceſs of Douglas and Barbaroſſa, have almoſt uniformly depended for applauſe on the diſcovery of a loſt child, or a concealed hero. No Author ſeemed to poſſeſs any of that poetic furor which could exhibit the paſſions violently agitated, or the perſons plunged into that inextricable miſery, that might call forth thoſe racking feelings and deſperate efforts to which the mind reſorts in the moment of deſpair. A ſlave's habit, a falſe name, a concealed dagger, or ſome ſuch ſtage trick, was to give eclat, and the *Le Jue de Theatre* was more aſſiduouſly ſtudied, than paſſion, plot, or character. The muſes fire was extinguished by cold declamation, while inſpid epithets, common place figures, and wire-drawn metaphors, ſupplied the place of that ſentiment and pathos, which a ſtrong and animated fable ſeldom fails to produce. Let this be underſtood in a general ſenſe ; there have been exceptions ; though none lately, as we think, that may be put in competition with the Myſterious Husband. But though, as a *whole*, it is exceedingly affecting, and diſcovers great abilities in the Author, yet it is in parts very defective. We will examine it under the following heads : Plot, Incidents, and Moral ; Character, Manners, Sentiments, and Diſtion.

And firſt, of the Plot, Incidents, and Moral :

The ground-work and moving principle of the plot, are the crimes (already committed) of Lord Davenant, who is the hero of the tragedy. In the very firſt ſcene we find him oppreſſed by, and ſtruggling under a load of guilt. He has married two wives, one of whom, Miſs Dormer, though an Engliſh lady, he has left in Flanders, where
he

he went by the name of Brookes, and by falſe reports, made her believe him dead. The other he obtained for the ſake of her fortune, by deceit and forgery, in which, from motives of worldly cunning, he was aſſiſted by her uncle, Sir Edmund Travers. In this double guilt he has doubly injured a young ſea officer, of the name of Dormer, firſt in treacherouſly making him and Lady Davenant (to whom Dormer was betrothed) believe each other falſe, and afterwards by marrying his ſiſter at Antwerp, where as an orphan ſhe had retired to live, for æconomical reaſons. Lord Davenant is a man of ſtrong paſſions and deep reflection, and is evidently more prone to extricate himſelf from the probable effects of his crimes, by adding to, than repenting of them. He has placed a lawyer in his houſe, dreſſed like a footman, as a ſpy upon the conduct of Lady Davenant, who is uniformly a good and great character. He tells her he hates her, prompts her to vice in hopes of a divorce, and appears ſo willing to commit any wickedneſs rather than ſuffer detection, that the mind of the ſpectator is in continual alarm for the ſafety of its more virtuous favourites. But though it is alarmed, it is not without hope; guilty as Lord Davenant is, and urged on by fear, to the commiſſion of acts ſtill more horrible, yet his propenſity to virtue at ſome moments, and deep ſenſe of his own villany at all times, make it poſſible he ſhall deſiſt from farther miſchief. This conduct is very artful and judicious in the poet, ſuſpenſe being the maſter-paſſion by which the audience muſt be kept attentive. We do not anticipate what is to come, nor can we prophecy that when a dreſs is thrown off, a name pronounced, or a bracelet produced, that the plot ſhall be unravelled. We are obliged to wait in ſilent and anxious expectation, the deſperate conteſt of vice and virtue, and the effects of future accidents. While things are in this ſtate the diſtreſs is greatly aggravated, even to horror, by Captain Davenant, the ſon of Lord Davenant, who privately marries Miſs Dormer, ſhe being returned to England after the ſuppoſed death of her huſband. From this moment the plot turns upon the feelings, meetings, and other incidents of foregone cauſes, ſo that the denouement begins, in fact, in the firſt ſcene of the third act. This is the greateſt defect in the plot. We are then aſſured there is no poſſibility of happineſs for any of the perſons concerned, and we are only anxious that their ſufferings may be as light as poſſible. Had this happened later in the play, it would have been more conformable to the precepts of the critics, and would not have laid the Author under the neceſſity of introducing a very aukward epiloſodical
jea-

jealousy, concerning Sir Harry Harwood, which is evidently a poor resource to lengthen out the plot, when every thing should be rapid and decisive: this is a material blemish to the play. We are, however, so much engaged in the misery and feelings of Lord Davenant, that the attention seldom flays while he lives, and he does not die till the last scene of the last act.

The incidents, are many of them well imagined, and have their proper effect in the conduct of the fable. The card preparatory to the introduction of Dormer, is a very natural and a very happy thought. Dormer's generous gratitude and confidence in Lord Davenant, which makes him press Lord Davenant to become the guardian of his sister Marianne (Lord Davenant's other wife) have likewise a good effect, and form a fine contrast to the vicious selfishness of Lord Davenant. The borrowing of the chariot seems trifling in the dialogue and forced, but its consequences are very essential to the plot, and might have been more so. The forcible introduction of Dormer to Lady Davenant, by Lord Davenant, is so unnatural, that it could not have happened, unless Lord Davenant had resolved to become virtuous, from which he is so distant, that the moment preceding, he has been reasoning, persuading, and conjuring her to elope to Dormer, that he might be divorced, and again enjoy Dormer's sister. If it be said, he brought them together to produce this effect; we answer, he would not then have avowed his foregone fraudulent practices to Dormer. In fact, his conduct is here wholly inexplicable, and we see the poet followed his convenience, and not his judgment. The incidents of the uncle's entrance while Lady Davenant and Dormer are embracing, and of Captain Davenant's and Dormer's entrance while Sir Harry Harwood is kneeling, have too much of the hackneyed stage trick of comedy, to be worthy of where they are. The coming in of a lady to part men, when they are fighting, is in the same predicament, except, that it there clears up a mistake, which according to the turn the plot has then taken, gives the spectator relief, and is necessary. The efforts Lady Davenant makes to conceal the misery of the incestuous marriage, from both father and son, are generous, and like the other parts of her conduct, therefore proper and judicious. The reluctance with which she tells Lord Davenant of it at last, and the manner in which he receives it are likewise so. The death of Lord Davenant is unavoidable, and the introduction of Marianne at that moment is a fine tragical incident, and we think, might have given room for some most beautiful expressions
of

of passion; but they must have been beautiful, or they would have been execrable.

The Author has not himself, as is the custom with some of our best poets, drawn any moral, nor does he seem to have had any precise and determinate one in view, in the construction of the fable: the one most obvious is, *that crimes necessarily incur punishment*; but this is so general, that it will suit any play which is not immoral.

The unities are so strictly observed, that the time is the time of representation, the place is never (except one scene of Marianne's lodgings) out of Lord Davenant's house, and the action is so progressive, that the scene is only vacant twice. We, however, are among those modern sceptical critics, who think, that these are not so essential to perfection, as have by some been thought. Were a writer to convey us through the four quarters of the globe, by such beautiful vehicles as the chorusses to Henry the Fifth, and keep a connected and interesting fable, we would more willingly attend him, than sit to yawn over dulness and *vraisemblance*.

Let us proceed to a short view of the Characters, Manners, Sentiments, and Diction.

We do not think there exists any such character in nature as Lord Davenant. He, who can foresee consequences, and examine his own heart and actions so deeply, cannot commit such crimes. He might have committed them while a rash, inconsiderate youth, but these are all done in the middle, or rather the decline of life. When a man at that period is guilty of errors, if he reasons, it is to justify them. The moral tendency, however, of shewing a man oppressed and tortured by the weight of his own guilt is so excellent, that if it be a fault, in this instance, it is a fault we could not wish to see reformed. Lord Davenant is uniformly a man struggling with passions that are opposed by a strong sense of virtue; which is a character exceedingly proper for theatrical exhibition.

Lady Davenant is throughout a fine example of suffering and persisting virtue, and has likewise a most excellent moral tendency.

Captain Davenant and Mr. Dormer too have a very proper, and a very strong sense of rectitude, but would the plot have admitted of one of these young men plunging into the thoughtless and mad guilt that the father of one of them does, it would have been far more probable, and we should have pitied the hero, whom now we often despise.

Marianne might have been a great character; she is almost

most an insipid one, and we are sorry to see such an opportunity lost.

Sir Harry Harlow, and Sir Edmund Travers, are the two most exceptionable characters. The first of these is an extremely virtuous maker of cuckolds, whom Lord Davenant encourages to come to his house, hoping, he may succeed; and who being caught on his knees to beg something of the lady, (nobody knows what, or, at least, why he should fall on his knees in such an extacy) and being reproached for his attempts by the jealous Dormer, who caught him in the very action, this chaste instrument of crim. con. assaults Dormer, bids him stop his blaspheming tongue, and die like a madman in his error. To make a number of incidents all happen nearly at the same time, and in the same place, and all tending to the same purpose, is so difficult, that happy is he who attempts it, without absurdity. The inconsistencies that are in the character of Sir Harry Harlow, and in the plot, wherever he is concerned, might all have been avoided, had the Author chose to shift his scenes and extend his time of action. In labouring to be correct, he becomes ridiculous; and so, in this respect, have almost all that ever went before him, which perhaps is some consolation.

While we behold the poet so careful not to offend against the code of criticism in one instance, we are astonished to see him make so free with it in another. The character of Sir Edmund Travers should not, surely, be allowed a niche in the temple of Melpomene. This is a far greater offence to the feelings, than the violation of the unities. It is very true, that the character is in nature, and that such foolish people are sometimes very busy in producing great events; it is also true, that in the common affairs of men, a great number of circumstances, all at one instant, and all conducive to the ruin or salvation of an individual, seldom or never happen. But as the mind is very much disturbed and shocked by the impertinencies of a buffoon, when it is employed in considering events of the most serious and alarming nature, and as these characters are by no means necessary to the conducting of a plot, why in the name of good sense and sound criticism, should we suffer what is offensive and painful? It is evident from the character of Sir Edmund, as well as from many passages both in this play, and in others of Mr. Cumberland's writing, that he studies our old English poets with great attention, for which we commend him, but not for imitating what, all the world now allows, was their disgrace. Otway's Anthony in Venice Preserv'd, and Sir Edmund Travers, are too nearly related.

The

The manners of Lord Davenant approach brutality and frequently shock; that is, when he speaks to his lady. Neither can we be persuaded that a man of his sensibility and education, could assume such modes of behaviour. It is true he is under the influence of violent passions, and *that*, perhaps, may reconcile them to truth and nature.

Captain Davenant entirely forgets the manners of the gentleman on the first entrance of Sir Harry Harlow, who asks

'*Sir H. H.* Won't your fair mother-in-law make her appearance?

Capt. D. No.

Sir H. H. No, man! is that all the answer you can afford me! *the yard-dog would say as much.*

Capt. D. Take your answer from him then, when you make your next enquiries.'

This is the language and the wit of the porter and his comrades at his Lordship's gate, and not of gentlemen.

These things excepted, the manners seldom deviate from propriety.

Of the sentiments and diction had we room, much might be said, but we have already swelled this article beyond the usual limits, though we confess we think poetry of all kinds has not employed so much the attention either of the Critic or the Reader lately, as such subjects deserve. We shall contribute all we can to restore the diminished dignity of the muses. We shall close this account with a few observations, and an extract to give our Readers an example of the Author's manner.

The sentiments are generally strongly on the side of virtue, but not always. Lady Davenant who resolutely persists in maintaining her innocence, is thus answered by Lord Davenant.

'*Lord D.* Curst be these peevish scruples.—By the power that made me, if you will not accord to my proposal I will render your life a torment. And for that *bubble* reputation which you prize so much *above its worth*, I'll blast it through the world: I'll fasten shame upon you; it shall haunt you like your shadow: ridicule shall dog you at the heels: abuse and slander bark at you like hounds, and tear that virtue *which is but a cloak*, to nakedness and rags*.

Again,

* Compare this speech with that of Corvino's in Ben Johnson's *fox*, where he attempts to persuade his wife Celia to submit to the embraces of Volpone.

Celia. Sir kill me, rather I will take down poison,

Eat burning coals, do any thing.—

Corv.

Be damn'd—

Heart! I will drag thee home hence by the hair;

Cry.

Again,

* *Lord D.* P'shaw this is trifling.—If a man and wife keep forms 'tis all that is required, but to pretend a passion and talk of love to a husband, 'tis an affectation that lowers your understanding, but cannot impose upon mine.

The diction has occasional errors; there are too many vulgarities and worn out metaphors; neither is it free from quaintness and quibble. An attempt at wit is seldom happy in a tragedy, nor is it ever, in our opinion, in the mysterious husband; though there are too many such attempts.

Sir Edmund Travers says he had been let into the houses of three married couples and found but one and a half at home. Again.

Lady *Turtle* was on the wing that *Dove* had left the ark.

A knot of *old fograms*:—brains a *gadding*: an excellent man *in the main*:—a *grey head* and a *green one*,—a *monstrous* fortune;—a *humming* jointure:—*that's the truth on't*, &c. &c. may be characteristic expressions for Sir Edmund, but they will find few admirers where they are. Tragedy should neither stalk upon the stilts of epithet, nor stain her robes in the lees of colloquial vulgarity.

The play upon the word journey between Paget and Lord Davenant while the latter is dying, is a glaring instance either of ill taste or inattention. We forbear to speak of the merits and demerits of a prose stile, in which this play is written, because we cannot stay to discuss the subject as it deserves.

After having pointed out errors, we should ill execute the office of true criticism were we not to cite something in the Author's favour; more especially, as we venture to say the Tragedy is possessed of very great merit. The following is the last scene of the fourth act; it contains much of that true pathos which arises from events terrible to all hearts, and to incite which, is indeed the most essential province of the tragic poet.

* *Sir H. H.* Look to my lady—.

Lady D. No, no; regard not me; I shall not fail; Heaven sends me strength for my appointed task.—Let me be private with you.
[To Lord Davenant.]

Cry thee a strumpet thro' the streets, rip up
Thy mouth unto thine ears, and slit thy nose
Like a raw rochet—Do not tempt me, come,
Yield, I am loth—death! I will buy some other slave,
Whom I will kill and bind thee to him alive;
And at my window hang ye forth devising
Some monstrous crime, which I in capital letters,
Will eat into thy flesh with aqua fortis
And burning co's rives on thy stubborn breast.

Lord

Lord D. Not for the world :—my thoughts are terrible ; I am possess'd by fiends—stay, and be witness to my shame, whilst I confess the black accout which I must pass with Dormer : I have betray'd his sister ; ruin'd her by forgeries and falsehoods, as I did you, Louisa ;—married her.

Sir H. H. Infamous deed !

Lord D. Yes, Sir, there is rebellion in my blood ; his sword must let it out :—therefore no more, but let me pass.

[*As he is going out, Lady Davenant stops him.*]

Lady D. Hold, hold ! you must not stir.

Lord D. What is't you mean ? why do you cross me thus ?

Lady D. To save you from a meeting worse than death.

Lord D. To save your lover from a meeting that may lead to death.—Oh ! whilst you live, speak truth :—'tis love of Dormer raises this alarm. Have I not found the cause ?

Lady D. No, you've not found the cause :—wou'd that you never could !

Sir H. H. Be caution'd by you lady, and impute to her concern no other than the purest motive ;—my life upon it, you will find it such. Alas, unhappy man, what treasure have you cast away ? Hear her, console her, be advis'd by her : recover, if you can, her forfeited esteem. She is a miracle of goodness.

Lord D. Dost think me so far sunk in honour, as to shrink from this discussion ? Dormer's entitled to an honourable satisfaction, and I shall give it him immediately. Before we part however, Lady Davenant, let me own that I am penetrated with remorse for my conduct to you. Tho' I ask nothing for myself, I am not out of hope that you will cast an eye of pity and protection on that guiltless sufferer, who, if I fall, will be the partner of your widowhood :—she is young and beautiful ; and, if your influence over Dormer is exerted in her favour, she may retrieve the unhappy error into which I led her.—Farewell !

Lady D. Yet, yet prevent him.—Stay ;—she has a husband.

Lord D. What do you tell me ? speak that word again.

Lady D. She has a husband—and that husband—how shall I pronounce it ?—

Lord D. Go on : I'll have it, tho' it breathes destruction.

Lady D. That husband is your son.

Lord D. Death to my soul !—My son !

Lady D. Your son this morning married Dormer's sister.

Lord D. Why do I live a moment ?

[*Lays his hand on his sword.*]

Sir H. H. Stop your rash hand—What phrenzy seizes you ?

Lord D. Why does the earth not yawn, and whelm me to the centre ?—Oh what a day of dreadful retribution !—Why was this marriage secret ?—which of you was privy to it ?

Lady D. I knew it not, nor had suspicion of it :—few hours are past since he disclos'd it to me.

Lord D. Fatal concealment !—horrible event !—O God, O God, into what misery have I plung'd my son !—Does he know what I have done ?

Sir H. H. Nor he nor Dormer knew it :—take this comfort also to your

your heart; it is as yet a marriage but in form: the day is not yet passed, in which their hands were join'd.—Heaven in its vengeance has remember'd mercy.

Lord D. Call my son here directly.

Lady D. There let me interpose again. Take a short time for serious meditation: we will assist your thoughts. Your friend here has already struck one spark of light amidst your dark despair; patient reflection may bring more in view. Perhaps this meeting with your son, which you in your mind's present agitation are for hastening, prudence may postpone.

Lord D. Speak on, for there is something in your voice like comfort; something that falls upon my ear, like music in the dead of night after distressful dreams.

Lady D. Oh! if a few calm words can lull your ear, think how repentance may assuage your soul:—for so much of your offence as falls on me alone, I thank Heaven's mercy for its aid, I can forgive it; nay, my Lord, I have forgiven it.

Lord D. Nay, but you must abhor me; darkness must be less opposite to light, than I to innocence:—so loathsome am I to myself, I shou'd despise the person that cou'd pity me.

Sir H. H. Come to your chamber; follow your guardian angel where she leads you:—If I can serve you in this melancholy hour, command me; if I am in your way, dismiss me.

Lord D. I pray you leave me not—I have a thing to tell you—it is not known to man, nor can your heart conceive, how dire a deed I've had in meditation:—there was a thought struck on my mind too terrible for utterance: but it is past: this stroke, that cuts up all resource of hope, cuts up the bloody purpose that I had in hand. And now I feel as it were two natures:—my good and evil genius seem at strife within me; this touches me with human kindness and remorse; that tears me with despair and horror. How it will end I know not; for all command is lost, and my mind drives like a wreck before the tempest.—Go with my Lady Davenant; stay by her, I beseech you. I will retire to my chamber. Farewell!

[*Exeunt severally.*]

In this scene our Readers will doubtless remark some defects. Lord Davenant's little jealousy concerning Dormer is unnatural and impertinent at such a moment; it calls off the busy spirits that are all eager to know the issue of a great and terrible event. The idea too of Lord Davenant's giving Dormer *an honourable satisfaction* is immoral: Lord Davenant might *give his life*, but if he lifted his hand against the life of Dormer he must be the most atrocious of villains. It justifies the practice of duelling, in that very point wherein it is most reprehensible; the defending of one crime by the committing of another. The stile of Sir Harry is too verbose; when the passions are thus agitated, every sentence, every word should be pointed,---*my life upon't:---command me:---dismiss me, &c.* are here trifling. There is an incorrect, or rather a ridiculous metaphor used. Lady Davenant says

says "your friend has already *struck* one spark of light amidst your dark despair; patient reflection may *bring* more in view." To *strike* a spark of light is proper, though it is petit, but for *patient reflection* to *bring* more sparks is making patient reflection a drudge of a very droll nature. Lord Davenant in his last speech speaks two lines too much. His bidding Sir Harry do this, and saying he will do that himself, and then taking a formal farewell is entirely out of the tone of the passion.

The Reader who makes these observations, we hope will observe likewise that they are only specks in the sun; that the effect of the scene is great; the pathos glows in almost every line; that there are beauties of diction as well as defects, and that the greatest art of the poet is here exerted, which is that of *obliging* his Auditor to attend. As we have pointed out an erroneous metaphor, and as there is a very charming one almost immediately following, it is our duty to notice that also. "Speak on; there is something in your voice like comfort. *Something that falls upon my ear like music in the dead of night after distressful dreams.*" Those who conceive the feelings of Lord Davenant, will understand the force of the application; and those who have indulged in the sunshine of poetic imagery, will see the beauty of the simile.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

We have been favoured with the following Philosophical News, by a Gentleman, whose Communications have frequently done Honour to the most celebrated Publications, and whose Acquaintance with the Sciences and their Cultivators, is perhaps more extensive than that of any other Person in Europe.

ART. XIV. *On the supposed Formation of a Silicious Matter by the Sparry Acid.*

SOME years ago there was a discovery made in Sweden by Mr. Scheele, a chemist of great reputation, of a new kind of acid, which, when combined with calcareous earth, forms the phosphoric spar. Its properties are so widely different from those of every other acid, that it certainly constitutes a distinct species of acid, and ought not to be confounded with any other known before. In 1772, Dr. J. R. Forster published in English, an abstract of the experiments on this subject, related by the Author Mr. Scheele, in the Swedish Memoirs for 1771, in which may be seen an account of the discovery at large. But what appeared the most extraordinary was, the formation of a silice-

ous substance, generated, as it was believed, by this fluor acid coming into contact with common water; and so repeatedly was this observed and confirmed by the testimony of so many respectable vouchers, among whom may be reckoned professor Sir T. Bergman, who in his opuscula adduces very strong arguments in behalf of this opinion, that it was boldly asserted to be a fact established beyond all controversy. A report however has of late been spread among our English chemists, that not only the facts on which the assertion was grounded, were dubious, but that the Upsal professor himself had given up his opinion, and was ready to retract what he had advanced in his publication on the subject. That this indeed is exactly true, appears from an original letter from Professor Bergman, to a gentleman in London, in which he acknowledges with the utmost candour, that Mr. Meyer of Stetin, has evinced the whole to be a mistake. P. Bergman has also written an account of the same thing to M. de Morveau, the French translator of his opuscula, that it may be made known to the world. This is one of the most honourable modes of proceeding ever adopted by a true philosopher, for such Professor Bergman certainly is. We see few similar instances in the numerous philosophical tribe, nor can they indeed be expected from those mean geniuses, who assume this title without any other right than a mere pretence to knowledge, of which they are not possessed.

What has misled these great chemists to assert that the fluor acid in the form of air, produces a stinty matter, is, that it generally corrodes the glass vessels in which the operation is performed, and besides there often exists in the sparry fluor, a stinty substance which comes over during the distillation along with that acid when it assumes the form of air. This circumstance has suggested the idea of there being in all probability some of this fluor acid in that wonderful spout of hot water at Geyser in Iceland *, which has formed a kind

* At Geyser, says Dr. Troil, not far from Skallhet, a most extraordinary large spouting fountain is to be seen, with which the celebrated water spouts at *Marly* and *St. Cloud*, or at *Cassel*, and *Herrenbousen*, cannot at all be compared. Within the circumference of three English miles, one sees here 40 or 50 boiling springs. The largest which is in the middle, particularly engaged our attention, the aperture was 19 feet in diameter. A column of water spouted from this opening, which at a great height divided itself into several rays, and, according to the observations made with the quadrant, was 92 feet high. It spouts by intervals several times a day. Dr. Troil says, that round the place of this water spout, is a basin which

kind of basin for itself from the siliceous earth, which it contains in solution, and which is precipitated when the water cools. But as yet no chemist has been upon the spot to make a proper analysis and verify this conjecture. Professor Bergman hints somewhere in his *Opuscula*, that the heat alone of that spring may in all probability, be sufficient to keep the earth in solution; and in the letter abovementioned, he says that he has attempted to dissolve siliceous earth by means of Papin's digester but without success. He however says, that he is by no means satisfied with his former experiments, which were not so completely or carefully executed as he could wish, and that he has hitherto been prevented by attention to other objects from resuming his experiments. What pity to see collections of butterflies, and pretty specimens of natural history made at such an enormous expence, while so little is bestowed on useful experiments, and such as would lead to a more intimate knowledge of the most common substances, which are still so little understood with respect to their essential properties; Whether stony earth is or is not soluble in water heated to a much higher degree than has hitherto been employed, may readily be ascertained in a good Papin's digester, and is indeed a desideratum well worthy of being attempted to be supplied by the lover of true natural knowledge, whose circumstances will allow him to incur the expence, which by the bye will not be very considerable.

Extract of a Letter addressed to Mr. Magellan, F. R. S. by
Professor Cigna of Turin.

I have been just present at some very interesting experiments made by the Count de Motozzo, which I think deserve your attention. They were made in a glass receiver of a cylindrical form, in order to ascertain the total absorption of fixed and other kinds of air by charcoal immediately extinguished after it had been heated to a red heat. The glass cylinder was set in a basin of quicksilver, and filled successively with the different kinds of air, into which the charcoal was introduced through the quicksilver.

According to Mr. Scheele's theory, the dephlogisticated air, (so denominated by Dr. Priestley, who first discovered this new and wonderful aerial substance,) unites with the

which has the form of a cauldron, the margin of this basin is upwards of 9 feet high, and its diameter 66 feet. A piece of the substance of which this basin is formed, has been found to be of a stony kind, according to the analysis of Prof. Bergman. The heat of the water after the basin was filled, and consequently cooled, was still 212 degrees of Fahrenheit.

phlogistic vapour of the charcoal, becomes heated and runs off through the glass vessel in which it was confined. According to an experiment attributed to the Abbé Fontaine, common air is entirely absorbed by the same vapour. In order to ascertain something relating to these two theories, the Count de Morozzo undertook to try the effects of red hot charcoal, recently extinguished, not only when put into atmospherical air, but also into other kinds of aeriform substances. You will see by the result of his experiments, that dephlogisticated air is far from being entirely absorbed, and atmospherical air is only in part. But *fixed air* is totally absorbed, inasmuch that the whole receiver, when of a proper capacity is filled with the quicksilver. The following are the results or facts ascertained by the experiments of the Count de Morozzo. The glass receivers were cylindrical, and stood 12 inches each above the surface of the quicksilver in the basin. The charcoal was of the wood we call *here fayard*, the length of the pieces was one inch, the breadth eight lines, and they weighed one drachm and an half each.

The absorptions happened as under.

Absorptions in inches and lines.			
Atmospherical air	_____	3	6
Fixed air *	_____	11	0
Nitrous air	_____	6	10
Alkaline air	_____	8	8
Inflammable air	_____	2	1
Dephlogisticated air extracted from <i>red precipitate</i>	_____	2	2
Ditto ditto from nitre	_____	1	11
Ditto ditto from water	_____	2	1
Common air phlogisticated by a candle burning out in it	_____	3	8
Ditto ditto by the vapour of sulphur	_____	3	7
Ditto ditto by a mixture of iron filings with brimstone a little wetted	_____	3	6
Ditto ditto by the respiration of a mouse	_____	3	4
Ditto ditto ditto of a rabbit	_____	3	4
Ditto ditto ditto of a pigeon	_____	3	8
Ditto ditto ditto of a sparrow	_____	3	4

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

ART. XV. *New Discoveries in Chemistry.*

WE have been informed by a correspondent, that the ingenious Mr. Watt of Birmingham, has discovered the acid of sugar in galls, and that another chemist has

* N. B. When the receiver contained only ten inches of fixed air, the mercury intirely filled up the whole space of the receiver, and of course the air was completely absorbed.

found the same acid in oils, we are not told whether in unctuous or essential oils, or in both.

Our correspondent adds, that the same Mr. Watt has converted the whole of a quantity of water into dephlogisticated air by the application of heat. This is an experiment so serious and important, that we hope the Author will not long withhold the particulars of it from the public.

15 We are much obliged by this communication, and we invite gentlemen who may happen to come at the knowledge of similar experiments, to give us information of them. We have only to request that they will take care to be certain that their intelligence is authentic.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For FEBRUARY, 1783.

MISCELLANIES AND POETRY.

Art. 16. *The Art of Pleasing*; or Instructions for Youth in the first Stage of Life. In a Series of Letters to the present Earl of Chesterfield. By the late Philip Earl of Chesterfield. Now first collected. 12mo. 2s. Kearsley.

THIS collection of letters, which are said to be now collected for the first time, were some years ago published in Scotland, in different forms. They appear to be genuine writings of the celebrated Earl of Chesterfield. They discover a great deal of knowledge of the world, exhibit many useful remarks, and are expressed with a happy elegance. But the morality of the Author being loose, the poison they instill, is more than a counterbalance to their merits: and they ought not, by any means, be recommended to young and inexperienced persons.

Art. 17. *The Flowers of Literature*, or Treasury of Wit and Genius. Containing the Essence of the Beauties of Johnson, Swift, Fielding, Pope, Goldsmith, Hervey, Sterne, Watts, &c. To which is added, a Selection of the most striking Passages, extracted from the Works of other celebrated Modern Writers, 2 vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Cook.

The attention of Mr. Cook, and other publishers of the present day, to the "little ones" in literature, seems to be nearly of the same kind with that of holy mother church to her babes in faith. Mother Church, as Cardinal Perron informs us, in his "*Replique au Roi de la Grande Bretagne*," "cuts her childrens meat, ~~my~~ often *shows* it for them, lest they should cut their fingers in carving for themselves;" and our modern publishers feed their children with "*flowers*" and "*essences*," we presume by way of suiting the food to the weakness of the recipient stomachs.

The nature of this compilation is apparent from the title-page:

we have only to add, that the selection, upon the whole, seems to be made with sufficient taste and judgment.

Art. 18. *Observations on Dr. Johnson's Life of Hammond.*
4to. 1s. 6d. Brown.

In this well-written pamphlet, the decision of our modern Aristarchus, with regard to the poetical merit of Hammond, is examined, and its validity controverted. The attack is sufficiently warm and pointed; yet, upon the whole, there is decency and good manners preserved, which we are sorry to say, are often wanting in literary disputes. The Doctor, it is true, seems to have condemned too magisterially, too much *in cumulo*. Imagery drawn from Roman manners, was certainly a fair object of criticism in a modern love poem, but why pass over those numerous passages where nature, simplicity, and passion speak directly to the heart, where the force and spirit of the original are perfectly preserved? The anonymous defender of Hammond, on the other hand, surely goes too far, when, by implication, at least, he would exalt his hero above every love poet that ever existed, except his original Tibullus. "Tibullus," he informs us, "has confessedly described the passion of love in a manner superior to every other poet," and Mr. Hammond according to him, not only equals, but sometimes exceeds his original. This we imagine is raising the latter, and perhaps the former, above their proper level. Pope's *Elise to Abelard*, keeps all other productions of the kind at an awful and humiliating distance: it is, and we have some reason to think it will be long an *unique*. Dr. Johnson must certainly have known that Hammond was to be considered as an *imitator*; his silence on this head we cannot pretend to account for. As represented by his antagonist, it may no doubt be brought as an impeachment of his candour. Mr. Hammond certainly meant to accommodate the thoughts of the Roman poet to his own situation; they were to appear to his Delia as his own thoughts, as the instantaneous effusion of passion, as the language of the soul. As an English lover he addressed an English mistress. What he therefore met with in Tibullus, that could be accommodated to this purpose he had a right to appropriate to himself, and, in every sense of the word, ought to have made his own, since he chose to make love through the medium of translation: but surely the introduction of the "solemn pyre, the golden vase, Paphia's odours," and all the apparatus of a Roman funeral, when he speaks of his own burial, makes us lose sight of the poet, the lover, and of truth, while the parasitical translator only remains in view. The sensible Author of the *Observations* endeavours to apologize for this, and every thing of the kind, by informing us, that "to a woman of education, the ardour of true passion, though *refracted* through the medium of fiction, may not only be pleasing but delightful." Perhaps in some cases it may; but would it not be more pleasing, more delightful, without the refraction? Whatever may be the excellencies of this *refracted* love, we scruple not to give our verdict for the *direct* ray, conveyed by truth, nature, and genius, *unrefracted* to the heart.

Upon the whole, truth here, as in most other disputes seems to lie between the extremes. To the decision of Dr. Johnson, when he pronounces

nounces of Hammond, "It would be hard to find in all his productions, three stanzas that deserve to be remembered," we cannot possibly subscribe; neither can Hammond altho' a pleasing writer be considered as at the head of that class of poets, where he is placed by the Author of the Observations.

Art. 19. *The Farmer's Night-cap; or, the Parson's Pocket Companion.* Being Remarks upon the Penal Laws affecting the Clergy, and particularly in respect to Non-residence and Simony, with adjudged Cases. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

We want discernment to find out why the quaint title of "The Farmer's Night-cap," stands prefixed to this pamphlet. It professes to instruct two classes of men, who are often not upon the most cordial footing. Here the clergyman, for the small sum of one shilling, is taught to avoid some dangerous rocks and shelves, and here the farmer, for the same sum, may learn how to annoy and harrass his parson, become disagreeable to him perhaps, by too strict an attention to the collection of his tithes. The Author alone can determine which of these objects he had in view. Or did he mean by his *alias* title "The Farmer's Night-cap, or the Parson's Pocket Companion," that his publication, like a two-edged sword, should cut both ways? Is he of Juno's opinion, "Flectere si nequeo superos, acheronta movebo"?

Art. 20. *The Adventures of a Rupee.* Wherein are interspersed various Anecdotes Asiatic and European. A new Edition. To which are prefixed, Memoirs of the Life of the Author. And to which there are added, his Remarks concerning the Inhabitants of Africa. 12mo. 3s. boards. Murray.

The idea of this novel is borrowed from the Adventures of a Guinea; and there is nothing original in its execution. The adventures have nothing to recommend them either from incident, fancy, or character. They are common and uninteresting; and it is in vain, that we have endeavoured to discover any traces of merit in this work. Yet, with all its defects, the genius of the Author has been supposed so considerable, that Memoirs of him are prefixed to it, and some indiscreet friend has written a passionate eulogium in his favour. The honours of ability and genius are wantonly lavished upon Mr. Helenus Scot; a young man of whom the literary world know nothing. The book and the encomiums are in the direstest contradiction; and the offended reader in the midst of his contempt, cannot but recollect the adage, 'that there is no fool, who may not find another, still more absurd, to admire him.'

Art. 21. *An Heroic Epistle to the Right Honourable Lord Viscount Sackville.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearsley.

An heroic epistle has been a favourite title, since the famous epistle to Sir William Chambers first made its appearance. The present performance is a violent phillippic against Lord Viscount Sackville, the Ministry, and the King. It contains too, a picture of our national situation, which appears to us highly exaggerated: could we be persuaded, that this poetical Spagnoletto had preserved the resemblance, in his dreadful caricature, we would quit this accursed

land, and seek for freedom and happiness in the western world, where the bard informs us,

‘THRO’ the thick shades of falling empire’s night,
We see the beaming of celestial light,
The light of FREEDOM—whose auspicious ray,
Already darts the beam of promis’d day,
When liberty’s full orb shall radiant rise,
Ascendant be, and gild the Western Skies.—’

The Epistle is written in Churchill’s manner, though not in his *best* manner; his violence, and the roughness of his numbers are sufficiently discernible, but the better part of him is wanting. It is often incorrect, and the style oftener obscure. An instance or two of each, may be satisfactory to the public. Speaking of the Viscount’s coronet, the Author has the following lines, page 10.

‘O! may it *bang*, whene’er it *press* thy head,
With weighty care as made of ten-fold lead.’

Here are *two* faults in *one* line. The verb “*bang*” can only be applied to something *pendant*, which is not the case with a coronet when placed on the head: and “*press*” is incorrectly used for *presses*, or *shall press*. In the next page we meet with this ridiculous pleonasm,

‘Wide o’er Germania’s plains th’ embattled hosts
Spread *wide*’——

When the Author is telling the Viscount what his conduct ought to have been at the battle of Minden, we are puzzled with the following (to us at least) unintelligible lines:

——— ‘Fast as *he* could fly,
Jove’s messenger, the plume-heel’d Mercury;
Fate’s messenger in arms, shouldst thou have *fled*,
Reapt glorious meed, or mingled with the dead.’

This passage, after repeated attempts, we are able to construe in no other manner than the following: Lord Sackville, “Thou shouldst have *fled* (run away, like) fate’s messenger in arms, “fast as the plume-heel’d Mercury, Jove’s messenger *be* (why *be* “here?) could fly: reapt glorious meed, or mingled with the “dead.” We leave the Reader to make what he can of it.

The commencement of the Epistle may be given as no unfavourable specimen of the work.

‘Son of QUIRINUS! or to greet thine ear,
With sounds more pleasing, hail! thou new made Peer!
In homage to thy moulded fame I bow,
Perch’d on the coronet that decks thy brow:
Well may it fit——pernicious gold may shine
Round brows where sacred laurel ne’er would twine.
The ROBE PATRICIAN now shall cover all;
Disgrace no more degrade, or fear appal.
The guilt is lost that once the conscious plain
Of MINDEN blushing saw thro’ all her slain.
Such is the magic of this crimson vest,
When clasp’d with royal hands across the breast;
Vices deform’d and dress’d in Stygian gloom,
Virtue’s fair port, and honour’s form assume.

The charm of courts that operates so much,
More than king's evil cures by slightest touch.
Inspir'd by fumes of this omnicif pow'r,
TORIES to GEORGE THE THIRD libations pour :
It mounts the coward to the hero's place,
Wipes from the recreant brow each soul disgrace ;
Cures all but CONSCIENCE—washes Ethiops white ;
Makes night of noon-tide suns—and day of night ;
Confounds, perverts all honours and degree :
And makes a hero e'en *Germaine* ! of thee.

I have no wish behind the scenes to steal,
To spy the movements of the common-weal ;
To view the puppets, or the master's art,
And see how each puffed lordling plays his part ;
How shifting ministers to court keep time,
And harlequin this great world's *Pantomime*,
Nor to that fatal closet would I creep,
Where folks are tickled till they fall asleep.
Nor would I, all state secrets to unfold,
Give CÆSAR's lawful image stamp'd in gold.
It suits not us, plebean wights, to know,
The arts, and tricks of the state farce-shew.
Or how imperial BRUNSWICK wears his face,
Now urges horrid war, and now the chace.
Or why as whim or faction give the word,
He now a button makes, and now a Lord.

Art. 22. *The Progress of Poetry.* By Mrs. Madan.

1s. 6d. Dodslcy.

"The Progress of Poetry" might have remained undisturbed in the portfeuille of the Editor, without doing either injustice to the memory of Mrs. Madan, or injury to the public. The Editor thinks that this production, will add "to the large collection of beautiful writings with which this country already abounds ;" the public, we are afraid, will not subscribe to his opinion.

The poem is deficient both in poetical and critical excellence : it is in some places turgid and exuberant, while prosaic flatness disgusts us in others. In the delineation of the various poets, we are either tired with characters the most hackney'd and common-place imaginable, or presented with false ones. To give an example of the former would be to transcribe almost the whole poem, the two following lines will present the reader with a striking instance of the latter,

' There *Virgil* his immortal harp has strung,
And ADDISON, great *Virgil's* rival, sung.'

This is surely a bold stroke, but "poetis quidlibet audendum." The poem concludes in a stile of criticism, no less glaringly conspicuous. After having mentioned Chaucer, Spenser, Cowley, Milton, Dryden, Pope, &c. &c. the Lady seems to place them all equally "high on the radiant list," as she expresses it : Dryden does not stand one step above Denham, nor does Milton overtop Granville a single hair's breadth. All are placed on the summit of Parnassus. Hear her own words,

' Fain

' Fain would I now th' excelling Bard reveal,
 And point where most th' assembled Muses dwell ;
 Where Phœbus has his warmest smiles bestow'd,
 And who most labours with th' inspiring God ;
 But while I strive to fix the ray divine,
 And round that head the laurel'd triumph twine,
 Unnumber'd Bards distract my dazzled sight,
 And my first choice grows faint with rival light.'
 And then, having likened them unto the Galaxy, the Poem thus concludes.

' The dazzled eye, in countless beauty lost,
 Vainly essays to mark which shines the most ;
 From each the same quick living splendors fly,
 And undistinguished brightness charms the eye.'
 In a performance, thus essentially faulty, to notice such shimes as
 " scene begin, chime line, sublime join," or such grammar as we
 meet with in these lines

————— ' whole strains,
 With conscious strength a vulgar theme *disdains*,
 may be thought a work of supererogation.
 Art. 23. *A Review of Mrs. Crawford, and Mrs. Siddons,*
in the Character of Belvidera: In a Letter to a Gentleman at Bath.
 8vo. 1s. Debreth.

This Review is written with an evident intention of bestowing the palm of acting upon Mrs. Crawford. " To sum up the whole," says the Author, " Mrs. Siddons is a good Belvidera, to those who " have never seen Mrs. Crawford." The Author then compares his favourite to a race-mare, and says, " she has proved the *Childers* of theatrical fame, and distanced every other female in the theatrical course." Mrs. Siddons is censured in the beginning of this pamphlet for railing in some part of the pit at her benefit. This is an unfair accusation, for the practice of railing in the pit on benefit nights is common ; and Mrs. Crawford, our Author's heroine, has practised the same thing more than once.

The Author quotes speeches in the play, and points out minutely in these, the superior excellence of Mrs. Crawford. But it is unfortunate for the reputation of the Reviewer, that many of his quotations were never spoken by either of the parties ; being, in reality cut out of the prompter's books, and always omitted on the stage.

Art. 24. *An Archaeological Dictionary ; or, Classical Antiquities of the Jews, Greeks, and Romans, alphabetically arranged : Containing an Account of their Manners, Customs, Diversions, Religious Rites, Festivals, Oracles, Laws, Arts, Engines of War, Weights, Measures, Money, Medals, Computation and Division of Time, &c.* By the Rev. T. Wilson. 8vo. 5s. boards. Cadell.

The design of this performance points to utility, in an extensive degree. But the execution is lame, and imperfect. The Author appears to have more knowledge than judgment. For amidst the variety of articles which he exhibits, he is often too short, where
 he

he ought to have been full, and often minute, when he ought to have been concise.

Art. 25. *Bibliotheca Croftiana.* A Catalogue of the curious and distinguished Library of the late Reverend and Learned Thomas Crofts, A. M. Chancellor of the Diocese of Peterborough, and Fellow of the Royal and Antiquary Societies. Which will be Sold by Auction, by Mr. Paterfon, at his Great Room, No. 6, King-street, Covent-garden, London; on Monday, April 7, 1783. and the Forty-two following Days. [Good Friday excepted.] 8vo. 5s. S. Paterfon.

The bibliographical knowledge of the late Mr. Crofts, was allowed to be extensive and uncommon, and few libraries have ever been offered to sale, that were collected at a greater expence, or with a more fortunate care. In making a catalogue of his books, Mr. Paterfon has submitted to a fatiguing labour. This, however, is the smallest praise to which he is intitled. His mode of classification is able and judicious; and discovers an excellence and merit that seldom belongs to the compilers of catalogues.

Art. 26. *Reasons for Resigning the Rectory of Panton, and Vicarage of Swinderby, in Lincolnshire; and quitting the Church of England.* By John Disney, D. D. F. S. A. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

Dr. Disney, in this address to the public, gives a plain, and unimpassioned account of his reasons for quitting the established church. The doctrine of the Trinity, as taught in the Articles and Liturgy of the Church of England, has brought him to Essex-street Chapel, as it did Mr. Lindsey some years ago. Throughout this short performance, the mildness of genuine Christianity is conspicuous. Content with a peaceable retirement from the station in which his conscience would not permit him to remain, Dr. Disney is willing to make every liberal allowance for those who do not think it necessary to withdraw from the establishment.

‘I make no doubt, but the time will come when the forms of worship in the Liturgy of the church of England will be corrected, and reduced nearer to the standard of Scripture. But, alas! this will not be the work of my day. This generation will probably pass away without seeing it. In the mean time, individuals must satisfy themselves in their compliance with the present system, according to their different apprehensions of the truth of it, or seek their relief by a peaceable retirement from a church, with which they are not agreed in the object of religious worship. In either of these cases, there is no just occasion given for reproach. The concern is personal, and confined to the conscience of every individual, over which, neither the magistrate, nor any private persons, single or associated, have any authority.’

Art. 27. *Nine Discourses on the Beatitudes.* By the Rev. William Smith, D. D. Dean of Chester. 8vo. 2s. sewed, Rivington.

The learned Dean is already well known in the literary world by his translations of several of the Greek classics. His reputation will suffer no diminution by the publication of his Discourses on the Beatitudes. Without apparent labour, they are equally correct and

etc.

elegant ; while the glare of meretricious ornament, and the tricks of rhetoric are no where to be found. The matter of the discourses possesses equal merit with the manner in which it is conveyed. A clearness of arrangement, and strength of argument run through the whole, and through every part ; which, while they render them agreeable to the learned reader, will at the same time make them generally useful. The sense of the text is marked with precision, and the deductions from it enforced by a strain of reasoning, where vigour of intellect, and evangelical simplicity, appear in perfect unison.

Art. 28. *An Analysis of the principal Duties of Social Life :*

Written in Imitation of Rochefocault : in a Series of Letters to a Young Gentleman on his Entrance into the World. By John Andrews, L. L. D. Small 8vo. 3s. sewed. Richardson and Urquhart.

Dr. Andrews appears to be a man of considerable observation. His maxims on the duties of life, though they possess not all the elegance and point of Rochefocault, certainly merit approbation ; and the more so, as he has given us a less humiliating, and we hope, a truer delineation of human nature. To convey knowledge in this sententious manner, has its advantages, as a maxim is often remembered, when the purport of a long discourse is entirely forgotten. Maxims ought to be clear and obvious, that the mind may instantaneously assent to them without the trouble of investigation. Any similitude by way of illustration, should be perfectly apposite, otherwise it tends to obscure what it was meant to illustrate. Dr. Andrews has, in general, kept these rules in view. To give the title of Letters to the divisions of his work seems improper, as nothing can be more unlike epistolary writing, than the style which he has avowedly assumed. This, however, is only a slight impropriety, which is not essentially injurious to the performance. The following maxims will give the readers some idea of what they are to meet with in this publication.

‘ The sentiments and inclinations of a well-educated person may, in some measure, be compared to a tree whose branches have been pruned and trimmed by an expert gardener, and which retains in its growth and appearance, ever after, an air of symmetry and proportion.’

‘ A free and candid disposition passes current with all men ; it is like a present of light weight and rich value, which the receiver may carry about him without trouble : but the superior parts of others are frequently like a burden, which we bear through mere necessity.’

‘ Self-love benumbs and deadens all sensation for others. While we fancy ourselves secure, we set their welfare at a distance from our thoughts ; as the owners of a cargo who have insured their property, are indifferent about the fate of the vessel.’

‘ The company of wits is courted ; but we prefer the intimacy of a man of thoughtfulness and reflection. The most we can promise ourselves from the former, is diversion and merriment ; but we depend on the latter for solid substantial services. The first is like sunshine without rain, pleasant but unprofitable : the second,
like

like a moist but fertile climate, which, tho' cloudy and less calivening, yet repays the dweller with plenty.'

'It were paying too great a compliment to dissimulation to give it a name among the virtues. 'Tis, with respect to them, what a privy door is to the principal gate of a palace; the passage through which is public and honourable, while the other is used for meaner intercourse.'

'Happiness, like a pacific neighbour, is willing to enter into an alliance and confederacy; but we stand, as it were, on punctilios, and like unskilful negotiators, refuse to treat for want of a few trifling formalities.

'Nothing sooner leads to dependency than hope improperly indulged. To be thrown from towering expectations, and to find one-self in distress where we promised ourselves undoubted success, is like being cast from the top of a precipice: our faculties are stunned, as it were, by unexpected calamity; and it is with difficulty our minds recover from the sudden fall.'

Upon the whole, we recommend the present work as an excellent vade mecum for every young man who wishes to pass through life with the applause of the world, and the approbation of his own mind.

Art. 29. *Distress; A Poem.* By Robert Noyes, Cranbrook, Kent. For the Author. 4to. 2s. 6d. Law.

'The following poem, (says the Author, in his address to his candid Reader,) and the personal subject of it, was occasioned by the cruel and unprecedented behaviour of a dissenting congregation, who dismissed the Author from his ministry among them (after having spent twenty-six years of the prime life of his in their service) without assigning to him any other reason for their procedure, than a false one; for they being asked by him in the public Assembly, "why he had notice given him to leave them?" the only answer he received was, "because they were not able to maintain a minister;" though at the same time they intended to invite another, and to give him (at least) ten pounds a year more than they gave the Author.

This expulsion by his congregation seems to have reduced Mr. Noyes to extreme poverty, and to have led to that train of thought which pervades the work before us. He appears to be overwhelmed with his situation, and to view every thing through the most gloomy medium.

Of the Author's ideas, and the execution of the work, the public will be able to judge from the conclusion of this poem.

'Farewell, sublunary scenes, and gay!

Where the old trifle, and where children play;
Where youths fantastic weave the magic dance,
And to the grave with heedless steps advance;
Where busy crowds, like insects, swarm and die;
And pleasure's sons pursue a painted fly!

Farewell, ye sublunary scenes, and sage!

Where the grave sophist turns the midnight page;
With close attention into Nature pries,
Reads 'till he's lost, and thinks he grows more wise;

Where

Where the deep Magi of our learned day;
 In fancy tread the cometary way;
 Where Locke's disciples spin the logic thread;
 Where Galen's pupils from the Grecian dead,
 Like bees industrious, gather healing skill,
 And thence prescribe the salutary pill;
 Where studious minds from Coke instruction draw,
 And learn to trace the labyrinths of law;
 Where priests sedate, to heap polemic lore,
 Turn dusty volumes of the Fathers o'er.

Farewell, ye sublunary scenes, and dull!
 Made more insipid by the prating fool;
 Where flutt'ring tops at wisdom's lectures hiss;
 Where at wit's target coxcombs aim and miss;
 Where self conceit o'er modesty prevails,
 And cloy's society with senseless tales;
 Where misers waste their years in heaping store,
 Toil to be rich, and yet are always poor;
 Where sordid Epicures, of boasted taste,
 Pamper themselves to give the worms a feast.

Farewell, ye sublunary scenes, and sad!
 Hung round with 'scutcheons, and in mourning clad;
 Where cruel war and ghastly famine rage,
 And sudden sweep life's temporary stage;
 Where pale disease destructive pow'r assumes,
 And fills the world with hospitals and tombs;
 Where pains the body rack, the limbs distort,
 And fix their arrows in the sicken'd heart;
 Where poignant grief o'erwhelms the human mind,
 Robs it of reason, and distracts mankind;
 Where hope by disappointment's dagger bleeds,
 And woe to woe with speedy step succeeds;
 Where poverty stalks forth in all her gloom,
 And leads her children penfive to the tomb;
 Where DEATH, the monarch of this tragic scene,
 With rage insatiate, and with pointed keen,
 Spreads ruin wide—and when the tyrant calls,
 The drama closes, and the curtain falls.

Once more, ye sublunary scenes, farewell!
 I'm warn'd to quit you by each solemn knell:
 Dull world, and sage! of thee I take my leave;
 Form'd to distress, disquiet, and bereave;
 Let others fawn, and pay their court to thee;
 Thou hast no friendship, and no charms for me!
 Gay world to some—to me sad world, adieu!
 Till the last day shall break with glories new.

Two episodical scenes of distress are introduced: in the first he paints the massacre of a family by the North American Indians, the other describes the melancholy fate of the Royal George.

It gives us pleasure to see so respectable a list of subscribers prefixed to the poem; it shews that the Author's misfortunes have been
 com-

commiserated, and leads us to hope that he has been *essentially* relieved.

Art. 30. *A Poem*, sacred to the Memory of the late Sir John Clerke, Barr. By Joseph Gillibrand, 4to. 1s. Buckland.

Mr. Gillibrand's poem is not long, for which the reader will thank him, as we most heartily do. The public shall hear the author speak for himself.

'Engag'd in such a theme, why sinks my soul?
And why in anguish ev'ry minute roll?
Because I lov'd, and therefore much bemoan
The worthy youth whom virtue call'd her own.
Because I feel her sorrows, share her pain,
Who sees a friend, a son so early slain:
A son, a friend, for justly might he claim
An int'rest in each dear, each tender name.'

Art. 31. *The Necessitarian: or, the Question concerning Liberty and Necessity stated and discussed, in 19 letters.* By Benjamin Dawson, L. L. D. Rector of Burgh, in Suffolk, 8vo. 2s. 6d., sewed. Johnson.

In these letters Dr. Dawson argues on the question of liberty and necessity with great metaphysical acuteness. He endeavours to prove that the will is determined by *motives*: he accounts however, "every act that proceeds not from external mechanical force, a *voluntary* act a *free* act;" but calls "that *voluntary* act *necessary*," in conformity to their "idea of *necessity*, who, on supposition of the will being determined by motives, will not allow it to be free, though voluntary." He goes farther, having established this species of *necessity*, he endeavours to shew that "*free-will* leaves no foundation for attributing merit or demerit to the agent," and that, on the contrary, "the doctrine of *necessity* doth that which the doctrine of *free-will* doth not. By leaving the foundation of morality secure, it leaves a foundation for merit and demerit, viz. the moral nature of actions. That which gives the action its *moral quality*, gives it at the same time its *worth* or *merit*." But, on the doctrine of free-will, there can be no foundation for attributing merit or demerit to an agent,—because it destroys all distinction between actions, *good* and *bad*, being terms without a meaning, when applied to actions without a moral motive."

Such is the scope of this publication, to which the advocates for free-will, will find it difficult to make a satisfactory reply.

MEDICAL.

Art. 32. *Observations on such Nutritive Vegetables as may be substituted in the Place of Ordinary Food in Times of Scarcity.*

Extracted from the French of M. Parmentier. 1s. 6d. Murray.

The necessity of the present period is universally acknowledged to be such, as to require every exertion of ability and humanity to ward off the calamities by which the poorer ranks of society are threatened. This little pamphlet therefore seems at least to possess the merit of being well timed and well intended. Nor is this all, many of the directions may be reduced to practice, and poor housekeepers would thus be enabled to make considerable savings. The original

is the production of an Author advantageously known by several ingenious and useful performances. From a memoir which gained the prize of the academy of Besançon in 1777, it was dilated into the bulk of a large 8vo, and published in 1780. These extracts are very much inferior in point of size; but the translator tells us, that, as it was designed for general use, he has omitted every thing which did not coincide with that intention.

Art. 33. *Aphorisms composed for a Text to practical Lectures on the Constitution and Diseases of Children.* By Dr. Wilson, 8vo. 1s. Murray.

Text-books can scarcely be considered as objects of criticism. The propositions are generally expressed with so much brevity as to be almost unintelligible without a commentary: and even if they could always be clearly comprehended, it would be as uncandid on the one hand to reject, as it would on the other be rash to admit them, without weighing the proofs on which they rest. These aphorisms have however one feature so prominent, and at the same time so uncommon in modern medical productions, that it must strike the most careless observer, we mean, a strong bias to the humoral pathology. In treating of the rickets, Dr. Wilson observes, "that it must be owing to a preceding weakness and coldness in the blood, and in the motion and qualities of the other fluids, produced by predominant acidity, if the bones are not strengthened by the time nature calls them to sustain infant activity." In the next page he adds, "I cannot omit noting that all degrees of rottenness of the teeth, and of tooth-ach ought to be referred remotely or ultimately to a manifest tincture of the rickets, or of these causes that produce it in the blood." Of the itch he asserts, that it is the true acceſcent scurvy, distinguished from other species of that disease only by the truly great Boerhaave, and that "it is not owing to animalcula." In another place he says "local inflammation (indeed all inflammation and every degree of it) consists in the introduction of red blood, into vessels into which it does not pass in that state naturally." "pus is a concoction of coagulable lymph, tending to fibrous granulation, but collecting too fast, and subjected to a digestive heat; that is, a greater heat than is natural to sound parts. Whence we may infer that since solids are formed or regenerated out of fluids, the principles of vitality are more immediately and primarily in the fluids than in the solids." "The chilblains, we are told, are certainly produced by a conflict between the keen sense of cold felt by young persons, and the greater natural heat of their blood, and laxity of their solids." We charitably hope that Dr. Wilson, is in possession of new and powerful arguments to support these singular opinions, many of which indeed have been long since exploded.

Art. 34. *Some Thoughts on the Relaxation of Human Bodies, and on the Misapplication of the Bark in that and some other Cases.* 8vo. 2s. Nicoll

It will be perfectly unnecessary to make any remarks on this performance; after laying before our Readers a few quotations, they may be safely entrusted to form their own opinion concerning its merits. Of cold bathing the Author observes, that "all abhor in general,

general, the first shock; and we may justly suspect that, what the senses in general disapprove, cannot be agreeable to nature."

Speaking of the late influenza, he says "patients at the very first onset became suddenly enervated with such a prostration of strength and spirits as seemed to be in a manner insupportable; yet this languor did not proceed from mere defect of strength, but from the contagion, which seizing the whole system, relaxed or obstructed the springs of life, and the principles of the constitution, which relaxation no bark or bracers could cure."

Soon after he thus proceeds, "some ascribed the cause of the disorder to a very wet and cold season. But whence this extraordinary cold season? Might not cold or nitrous particles in unusual quantities floating in the air, have checked the spring and produced the cold season? And might not such particles, according to the opinion of the late eminent Dr. Alcock, either have arisen from the earth, or come to us from some of the planets. As this disorder seemed at first atmospherical, although afterwards personally communicable, it was surprizing it fell upon man only, and did not seem to affect the rest of the animal creation."

From the multitude of passages equally sagacious and consistent that might be adduced, we will only add the following: "no one would think of strengthening a body clogged with serosities, or irritated by orudities, however weak and feeble it might be, or fancy he could correct the putrefaction of such humours, rendered active by putrescence; which activity proves the means of expulsion."

Art. 35. *Cursory Remarks on the Nature and Causes of the Marine Scurvy*, shewing that that fatal Disease may not only be prevented, but probably easily cured on board of Ships at any Distance from Land. By John Sherwin, Enfield, Middlsex, 4to. 2s. 6d. Baldwin.

The intention of this pamphlet is an object of the first national importance. There are many sensible remarks in it. The Author is of opinion that by means of vegetables, the health of seamen may be preserved in all climates, and at all seasons. In pursuing this doctrine he has set himself against the opinions of some of our first writers on the subject, and will have many difficulties to conquer before he brings his views into execution. He is too fond of theory, and the more so that he allows his experience to be circumscribed. This fondness leads him into absurdities; for instance; he denies that the scurvy is a *putrid* disorder, and he gives some ingenious thoughts in confirmation of this opinion. Not four pages after, in mentioning the effects of *fish diet* in producing the disorder, he gives as a proof, that, a Dr. Smith had a *putrid* sore throat from eating too freely of fish in Scotland. Opinions so irreconcilable must injure any attempt to establish a general doctrine. Although this pamphlet, upon the whole, deserves to be perused by gentlemen concerned in the treatment of our sailors, yet there are many cautions omitted, for want of which the young practitioner may be led into error. As the general constitution of seamen at present is, a mixture of animal and vegetable seems more proper, unless attention could be paid to the idiosyncrasies of individuals.

POLITICAL.

Art. 36. *A Reply to Sir Henry Clinton's Narrative. Wherein his numerous Errors are pointed out, and the conduct of Lord Cornwallis fully vindicated from all Aspersions; including the whole of the public and secret Correspondence between Lord George Germaine, Sir Henry Clinton, and his Lordship; as also intercepted Letters from General Washington.* 8vo. 2s. Faulder.

In this performance, there are doubtless, many particulars which press against Sir Henry Clinton. The pulses are made with vigour, and will not easily be parried. The Author, indeed, produces his vouchers; and they are generally to the purpose. It's to be observed, however, that he is somewhat angry; and this circumstance cannot fail to expose his work to the suspicion of dispassionate and candid Readers. In all disputes about facts, the inquirers ought constantly to abstain from invective. It gives a most improper bias to their minds, detracts from their authority, and serves to keep the truth in concealment. But Authors cannot preserve themselves from the power of the passions any more than statesmen; and their writings too often nearly resemble the factious violence which disgraces so much our two Houses of Parliament.

Art. 37. *An Answer to that Part of the Narrative of Lieutenant General Sir Henry Clinton, K. B. which relates to the Conduct of Lieutenant General Earl Cornwallis, during the Campaign in North America, in the year 1781. By Earl Cornwallis.* 8vo. 2s. Debrett.

The sensibility with which Lord Cornwallis perused the Narrative of Sir Henry Clinton has given occasion to this publication. The censures expressed or insinuated against his Lordship are not replied to in a continued chain of reasoning, or by any historical method of deduction. Lord Cornwallis has esteemed it the better method to present to the public his correspondence with Sir Henry Clinton. This correspondence is divided into six parts. In the first part, the letters are exhibited which passed between the two Commanders in relation to the campaign in North Carolina. The second part includes the correspondence relative to Lord Cornwallis's march into Virginia. The third part comprehends the letters which refer to the operations in Virginia. The fourth part contains the correspondence relative to occupying an harbour for line of battle ships. The fifth part holds out to observation, the letters which are connected with the defence of York in Virginia. And the sixth part is formed by letters from Sir Henry Clinton, delivered at New York a month after Lord Cornwallis's surrender. To the letters or correspondence which this publication submits to remark, there is prefixed, a short introduction by Lord Cornwallis which is written with politeness and candour. As to the merits of the dispute, they are not properly an object of criticism. The critic when he has mentioned the nature and purposes of this performance, has done his duty.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

THEATRE.

A View of the Performers, Tragic and Comic, of the London Theatres, and of their respective Powers and Abilities.

THERE is not in the whole circle of human institutions, one, which under proper regulations, would more effectually contribute to improve and reform the manners of society, than theatrical exhibitions. To this subject therefore too much attention cannot be paid by a wise government or a virtuous people. The fascination of the Drama is so wonderful, that the youthful spectator is carried irresistibly along, and may be made whatever the poet pleases. No legislature has hitherto sufficiently considered the force of this influence, or to what happy purposes it might be applied. The taste of the present age however in some measure does the duty of the magistrate, and wisely rejects what is offensive to decency or virtue. This is only spoken generally; there have been and will continue to be exceptions, till some legal tribunal shall be appointed to inspect into the moral tendency of dramatic poems. The office at present is shamefully left to the vague determination of chance; or the sometimes deceived or inattentive eye of criticism. It is mutually to the honour of the Authors and the Auditors, that the cause of virtue is so well promoted in the Theatre, and it is universally the disgrace of the nations of Europe that it is not better.

Whoever views the Drama and its effects on society in this light, will likewise perceive that the actors ought to be held in a very different distinction from the general orders of men. Not as they long have been, contemned for buffoons by the grave, or shunned as contaminated beings by the precise, but revered as the most effectual moral teachers, beheld with veneration as the representatives of the most noble and dignified of the human race. They should be taught the respect that is due to their functions, by the respect which the laws and the public should hold them in, and not because they cannot find admittance among the worthy and the estimable, be sent to seek consolation among the dissolute and profane. To say a man is an actor has long been held a sufficient reason to make those who most should seek his company shun it. The young and unexperienced, who in reading plays, are charmed with the elevated sentiments and virtuous characters they present, and with a laudable enthusiasm, wish to shew the world how forcibly they feel by the force with which they can deliver these heroic precepts, no sooner become players, but they find themselves excluded from the converse of those whose notice it was their greatest ambition to attract. This is the effect of ill advised laws and unjust prejudices; and it is no hyperbole to say, that if an actor be as good as other men he is better: nay it may safely be averred, that as actors are at present considered and treated, they must inevitably become the pests of society, were they not continually recalled to virtue by the repetition of those beautiful truths with which good poetry abounds and which first seized on, and delighted their imaginations.

This discourse in this place needs no apology; it is the duty of the philosopher to point out, and of the patriot to reform abuses.

Let us proceed to an examination of the professional abilities of the present actors: we will begin with Drury Lane, and with the tragedians of that theatre; in which class, as there are but few who perform principal parts, but few can be noticed here.

So many and so uncommon are the requisites to form a perfect actor, that no one ever yet possessed them all. No person can be accountable for what he never received, and when we remark that an actor has certain natural defects which neither time nor study can overcome, let our readers remember, that if these are numerous, and he yet approaches excellence, his merits are the more conspicuous, though we may wish his imperfections were less so. Against inattention, idleness and ignorance only, should the anger of the critic be directed, and for the reformation of these should his zeal be candidly, though spiritedly exerted.

Mr. Smith, Mr. Bensley, Mr. Palmer, Mr. Brereton, Mr. Aickin, Mr. Farren, the younger Mr. Bannister, and Mrs Siddons, are the persons we shall speak of in the tragic department, though all of them, except Mrs. Siddons, play as frequently in comedy as in tragedy: and as the nature of our work will not admit of amplification, we shall consider the merits of each in this double capacity.

Mr. Smith is indebted to nature for a fine figure and a clear and articulate voice; and to art, for a graceful display of his form in pleasing lines and characteristic attitudes. To this latter, which is no inconsiderable part of his art, he has paid great attention, but not enough to that still more difficult study, which teaches to discriminate peculiarity of sentiment, situation, and character. When a hero is oppressed, injured, or insulted, we are delighted to see him roused, and to hear him thunder forth denunciations of vengeance against his enemies; but we wish to see him a hero likewise when he is not thus violently agitated. King Richard, should not speak in recitative when he makes love to Lady Anne, nor declaim, when in his first soliloquy his active and ambitious mind is conjuring up what has been, and what it determines shall be, hereafter. When he says

“Grim visaged war has smoothed his wrinkled front,
And capers nimbly in a lady’s chamber
To the lascivious pleasing of a lute.”

It is not to amuse himself that he is making these observations, nor must the actor deliver them as if they were only intended to amuse the audience, by the description, or the poetry. They are but the perturbations of a disturbed and restless spirit that meditates only to put thoughts into action. The glorious diadem is the shining object, the first moving principle. On this he is so intent, of this he is so full, that every other thought is an adjunct of this, and contains some circumstance to promote or confirm him in his great design. The actor therefore who would shew Richard such as the poet has drawn him, must not come with an even tone and pace, and speak his part; he must possess the anxiety, the suspicion, the dissimulation, and the intrepidity of the character.

When

When he first studies it, he should be unremittingly attentive to these, and as diligent at every repetition, to recall the same train of thinking, lest the mind should suffer those ideas to die, or become feeble, with which at first it was strongly impressed; and so of every other character. Mr. Smith has indubitably great powers; it depends only upon himself to make a great use of them; but he appears to have lost much of that fervid ambition, that theatrical enthusiasm, which first bids the youth become a hero, and must afterwards teach him to be one; perhaps the returning taste of the public, and the genius of a Siddons, may revive in him that half-extinguished glow, without which no man can be a great actor. Comedy seems more suitable to his genius and his temper; in that, his words and actions come with superior force and meaning, and though we are sometimes tired with his want of variety in declamation, we are always delighted with his ease and vivacity in the fine gentleman. He has long given the public pleasure, and they owe him much; he may, whenever he pleases, encrease the debt.

Mr. Bensley is by no means so happy as Mr. Smith in exterior; he is sufficiently tall, but thin; the lines of his face are sharp, his eye is too prominent and apt to glare; his nose gives an acrimonious appearance to his visage, and renders it extremely difficult for him to express tenderness or grief, without burlesquing the passion. These are his misfortunes not his faults; and these he frequently overcomes and makes the spectator forget. His demeanor on the stage is that of a gentleman, and his delivery that of a man of sense. He expresses fortitude, and strength of sentiment, with more firmness and dignity than the generality of performers, and never mistakes, though he cannot always convey the feelings of his Author. His voice and aspect seem peculiarly adapted to the tyrant, though we do not remember ever to have seen him in that kind of character. Every person has some habitual defects; Mr. Smith too frequently half closes and seems to peer out of his eyes, which though proper and expressive in the jealous Kiteley, is wrong in the generous Hastings. Mr. Bensley when he strikes his breast, seems to turn upon a pivot and make two or three efforts before he can accomplish his intention. This gives sometimes an air of ridicule to the action, which he is not aware of. It may likewise be observed, that this action noble and expressive in itself, is degraded from its dignity, by a too frequent use on the stage. Mr. Bensley also has a mode of dwelling too long upon the last expressive syllable in the half close of his period, and of sinking too low to be audible at the conclusion of his sentences. These observations, and all in which errors are noted, are made to reform, not to wound. It would be ungrateful to overlook the very excellent manner in which this performer played the character of Omar in the tragedy of the Fair Circassian last season. Every person who heard, will easily recollect the pleasure they received, when he threatened by the haughty Almorani, with a determined, cool, yet forcible tone, look, and gesture, replied

“Tho’ death stood ready with his bowstring,
Omar dare shew the firmness of his virtue—

Unaw'd, undaunted like a faithful subject,
 Dare unappall'd, tell Almorán he's guilty—
 Tell him, whene'er he deviates into vice;
 Presumes that kings are left to range at large,
 O'er the Heaven-guarded property of others,
 And trespass on the sov'reign rights of man—
 Then tell him that he merits well the scorn;
 Of ev'ry loyal heart—a king no more—
 A king;—the public father, born to bless,
 And court the smiles of all his subject children."

In comedy likewise there is a particular cast of character, for the performance of which Mr. Bensley is peculiarly adapted. The Misanthrope; or the Man of Strong Sense, who has strong passions of which he is ashamed. His Old Batchelor, Plain Dealer, and a good part in a very indifferent Comedy, called the East Indian, which was played last season in the Haymarket, are instances of his excellence. His performance likewise of old Wilmot at the same theatre, in Lillo's beautiful, but horrible tragedy of the Fatal Curiosity, does great honour to him as an actor.

The abilities of Mr. Palmer are so various, and so superior in comedy, that it is almost ungenerous to speak of him as a tragedian, in which they are by no means adequate. His figure is exceedingly good and his face handsome, even the roundness of his shoulders, which in most forms would be an insurmountable blemish, in him seems easy, if not elegant. On the stage, he always appears conversant in the manners of the times; and the fop, or the fine gentleman, are by him personated with equal facility and precision. His performance of Joseph Surface, in the School for Scandal, has been considered by some as a master piece of acting, and so generally speaking, it is: in places however it is defective. His affected whine while he delivers the sentiments, has been praised as a true picture of hypocrisy; those who consider more attentively will find, that hypocrisy is continually fearful of detection, and therefore would not discover affectation. One place in particular is always remarkably offensive. In the library scene of the fourth act, while Lady Teazle is behind the screen, and he is endeavouring to divert Sir Peter from a conversation which he is anxiously afraid she should hear, a servant enters and interrupts him in the beginning of a sentiment. This sentiment like most of his others, he utters in the whining way above noticed, and asks the servant what he wants in the very same key and tone. This, Joseph Surface, with such feelings, and in such a situation could not do, even if he had so little art as to adopt such a sing-song mode of venting his fine sentiments, and which is so contrary to his usual manner of speaking. Errors of this kind excepted, his stile of playing the character is excellent, and very distinct from what either he, or any other performer does, or perhaps has an opportunity of doing in other pieces.

Truth obliges us here to remark another fault predominant in Mr. Palmer's comic acting; which is a continual propensity to laugh. It has been observed of him, and some others who stand high in their

their profession, and who are therefore the more reprehensible, that they are frequently more busy in playing tricks with one another, than in attending to accuracy of character, and present feelings. From actors who have studied their profession, who understand propriety, and who are ambitious of fame, this could not be expected, could not be believed, were it not every night too palpably repeated. Do they want to make their brother performers ridiculous to the public? Let us hope not, that were a despicable effort of envy; and if they are only desirous of obtaining applause among each other for superior effrontery, and command of countenance, that is a pitiful ambition. They violate character, they injure the poet, they insult their auditors, and then laugh at one another; they likewise entirely disconcert actors of less abilities, or less assurance than themselves. This censure is neither confined to Mr. Palmer, nor to this theatre: it is an error grown into a habit, which if the players will not, the public ought to correct: it is to be hoped they have sense enough, and resolution enough *themselves* to begin the reform.

Till the present season, the merits of Mr. Brereton were not sufficiently known, because, as we suppose, they were not called forth. No one believed him capable of so much feeling, or so much expression as he has discovered in *Castio* and *Jaffiere*. He has far outgone expectation, and as he evidently aspires at pre-eminence, there is no doubt but he will proceed. He has several natural deficiencies to overcome; his industry therefore, as well as his talents, deserves encouragement. His figure is good, but his features, though handsome, are not expressive nor flexible; his utterance is slow, and he is obliged to labour to make his hearer feel but half as much as he himself does. This has given him some awkward and violent habits in action, to the progress of which in justice to himself and the public, it becomes him to be attentive. He clasps his hat, contracts his arms into acute angles, strides, and heaves with apparent pain, before he can give his passion utterance. These things, though they originate in want of power, may by care be overcome, since it is evident his powers encrease by calling them forth. It was once thought impossible for Mr. Brereton to do what he has done; it is now evident he may do more. His conception of his Author is strong, and his expression generally correct, but he, and almost all tragedians, speak too much in recitative, nay so difficult is it to avoid this defect, that none are entirely free from it. To check this as much as possible, to keep a suspicious eye upon an error that all are guilty of, is a duty incumbent upon all, but especially upon him, whose voice is naturally plaintive, and who is therefore more liable to be betrayed. Let Mr. Brereton use less, much less action, let him assume more firmness, and keep himself stiller without abating his passion, where passion is requisite, and he will find himself more at ease, less embarrassed, and a still greater favourite with the public, in whose esteem he has lately rose in a very deserved, though in a very unexpected manner.

There are few men upon the stage, if any, who give less offence, and more pleasure in the characters he undertakes, than Mr. Aickin of *Drury Lane*. It is an unhappiness to the public, that his pow-

ers do not equal his understanding, and he among many others, is a strong proof of an observation we sat out with, viz. how almost impossible it is, to find all those wonderful endowments of body and mind, which are requisite to form the perfect player, concentrate in one person. We speak of those players who are to represent the hero, or the heroine, the fine gentleman, or the fine lady; in the humorous walk we frequently meet with more almost than we could hope; for in these, strength of imagination is the thing needful, beauty of person would be a defect. Mr. Aickin, whether in tragedy or comedy, always conceives, and always expresses the intention and passion of the author; at least, the exceptions are very few. That the spectators do not applaud him so often as they do some others, is because he in general enacts but secondary personages in the drama, and because they are neither diligent enough to observe, nor liberal enough to reward, those, who give the most delicate touches of their art; but they frequently speak of him, and ever with respect; he never offends, but he often pleases them, and whenever he quits the stage, it will be difficult to find so worthy a representative of the numerous *Dramatis Personæ*, in whose socks and buskins he has trod.

It is our turn now to speak of an actor, who from specimens we have seen, does not appear to have met so much distinction as he might were he more aspiring. Mr. Farren has theatrical requisites that should place him high among the devotees of Melpomene. A commanding brow, a good stature, and the best voice without exception of any person on the stage, are advantages, that, in this profession, should promote the interest of their owner. He has obvious defects likewise; his figure, for so young a man, has too much rotundity, and wants elegance; to this he has not been enough attentive, or he might assist it very materially by an easy deportment, which he wants. The goodness of his voice has led him into another error, he sometimes rants. This like the recitative of declamation, would be an universal fault, were it equally in every actor's power: the exceptions, at least, would only rest with those of very superior genius. The illiterate part of an audience ever have applauded, and ever will applaud passion, false or real, and ranting always gives the counterfeit of passion. To produce a clap is a circumstance so flattering to an actor, a thing at which his ambition so continually aims, that very very few have the fortitude to resist the temptation, even though their judgment condemns the means by which they obtain it. "To split the ears of the groundlings," has been the practice, and the complaint, from the old days of goodman Shakespeare, to the present pupil age; and will so continue. Those actors who have arrived at great excellence, have always learnt the secret of restraining their voice without enfeebling the sentiments, or the feelings of the poet, till they came to some particular passage where superior exertion is absolutely requisite, and then of bursting forth like a peal of thunder upon their astonished hearers. Thus when Mrs. Yates used to pronounce the following lines in the Roman Father, amazement and suspense increased at every sound.

"Stand

“Send off—I am not mad—
 Nay draw thy sword—I do defy thee—murderer—
 Barbarian—*Roman*—mad?—The name of *Rome*
 Makes madmen of you all—my curses on it—
 I do detest its impious policy—
 Rise—rise ye States—(Oh that my voice could fire
 Your tardy wrath)—Confound its selfish greatness
 Raze its proud walls and lay its towers in ashes.”

Not Satin, when

“He called so loud that all the hollow deep
 “Of Hell resounded”——

was heard with more astonishment, or more effectually roused his auditors, than we have heard Mrs. Yates in this speech. But this great effect could not have been produced, if her voice had been strained, fatigued, and half-exhausted by continued vociferation. Neither does it follow, that she was tame and insipid in the rest of the part. The expression of passion is seen in the earnest eagerness of demand, of reply, of apprehension, in the anxiety of suspense, the agitation of the step, of the look, and the tremulous accent of fear. The whole force of the voice should be reserved for some extraordinary and great occasion. There is a climax in the character, as well as in the period, which if attended to, will raise an actor's reputation, far more effectually than a few extorted and ill-judged plaudits. We wish we could make the public more judicious in bestowing their favours, for as long as the spectator will give foolish praise, the player will receive it. With respect to Mr. Farren we repeat, we are afraid he wants ambition, that is, that he wants that degree of it which stimulates the mind, and makes it restless under inferiority, that incites study and attention, makes the fancy glow when it observes beauties in competitors, with the ardour of generous rivalry, and burn to outdo what every one allows to be excellent. The life of an actor should be most assiduously employed. He should be perfectly acquainted with the characters of men living and dead. In the morning he should read, in the evening make observations on life and manners; during the time of performance he should never be out of the theatre, but look with unremitting care into whatever is erroneous, or whatever is proper, pleasing, or delightful in those who are most eminent. In his carriage and deportment, nothing should be too minute to escape his notice; when he commits the words he is to utter to memory, he should never lose sight of the meaning or passion of a single line in his part. He should determine what and how much action is proper, and be as perfect in that, as in the repetition of the words, otherwise his gestures will many of them be unmeaning, unsuitable, and impertinent. He should continually be recalling to his fancy how the person he represents, were he really there, would behave; that he may not suffer a look or motion to escape unworthy of his hero, or act beneath his dignity, or his feelings, when they should be more forcibly called forth. Whoever were thus anxious and thus industrious, with Mr. Farren's natural endowments, could not fail of

of being highly distinguished. He has acquired reputation as it is, we hope to see it increase an hundred fold.

The younger Mr. Bannister is a very promising actor, though he labours under some defects at present, which are apparently, the defects of immaturity, but which, if he is not very careful, will give him false habits that will remain when the causes of them are vanished. His voice has not yet attained either all its strength, or compass; his speech, therefore, is sometimes slow and laboured, and his pauses improper. The close of his periods is so sunk, that the words often become unintelligible. His deportment wants ease and stability, his step is too short, and he is too apt to retreat and advance alternately. In recompence for this, he speaks not only with propriety, but spirit; his eyes are animated, and the injuries or resentments of his character glow upon his countenance. His figure wants some of that rotundity, of which we complained in Mr. Farren, but though we know of no practical expedient instantly to reduce size, yet surely the assistance of art might aid the opposite deficiency; if not, who should embowel poor Old Jack? Mr. Bannister has more understanding than most men of his years; if he catches but a spark of that fervid, that persisting ambition, of which we have spoken before, he may be more perhaps, than at present he aspires to. He must not, however, suppose he yet has learnt the art he professes, let him look round, and he will see many of his seniors who are still in the accidence. He who imagines that when he knows, that he knows all, will never improve. It is the province of genius to think but lightly of past acquirements and past performances, because it perceives the possibility of doing much more, and much better.

We should now proceed to an examen of Mrs. Siddons, but the merits of this lady are so great, the success she has met with so uncommon, and the attention paid her by the town, so full of respect, that we should think ourselves deficient in the regard we owe our readers were we to speak of her in too short and desultory a manner; for which reason we must defer it to another number, having already employed as much room as the nature of our plan will allow, upon the present article,

For the ENGLISH REVIEW,

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

(Continued from our last.)

THE most distinguishing feature of the present times is an ardent spirit of commerce. In former ages, nations contended for military renown and extent of dominion: in the present, for advantages in trade. The empire of conquest is superseded by that of manufactures, and navigation.

The Americans, when they first avowed to the world their pretensions to independence, solicited the favour of the European nations, by holding up to their view, the allurements of a free trade. The ports of America were to be open to the ships of every nation of the earth. Mankind were invited to break the bonds which Great Britain had imposed on American commerce, and by promoting the liberal views of an infant state, struggling with tyranny and oppression, to advance the general happiness of the world. One of the most enlightened nations in Europe, was the first to take an active part on the side of a people, whose efforts, if successful, would open new channels of commerce, and humble the overbearing insolence of a proud and hated rival. Long had France aimed at universal dominion, and wasted her strength in vain attempts to subdue her confederated neighbours. The system of her policy was changed in the end of the reign of Lewis XV. This change may be traced to the experience of disappointment in her schemes of ambition; to the jealousy with which neighbouring nations watched the balance of power; to the just and liberal views of progressive commerce and political wisdom.

In a monarchy where the genius of the Prince has so great influence on the dispositions of the people, a spirit of war in the cabinet, would have surmounted the general inclination to the arts of peace, and diffused itself throughout all ranks of the nation. But Lewis XV. loved tranquillity: and the heir apparent to his crown discovered the most amiable proofs of benignity, but not that genius which is necessary to conduct, or that ambition which prompts the operations of war. The French nation saw the imbecility of the Dauphin: and Lewis XVI. was to be great by the arts of peace. This was the tone of France: and it guided the views of the pliant Monarch.

But the opportunity of weakening Great Britain, which was presented by the revolt of America, was so inviting, that it must have been embraced even by the most pacific cabinet. The independence of America being now effected, and the commerce of France, her ally, prodigiously extended; the court of Versailles will return to that tone which it had assumed before the commencement of the war, and prosecute the aggrandizement of the nation, by manufactures and trade, not the force of arms. It is in vain to imagine, that the French, from an ambition of conquest, will involve themselves in quarrels with America, or any other power. The views of that enlightened people are pacific, moderate, wise, and just.

just. They are now sensible that domestic industry, not extensive territories*, forms the real strength and greatness of a nation.

With these dispositions, it is not likely that France will commence hostilities against England, unless she is provoked by some injury. Her fortifying Chandernagore, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, are proofs that she is resolved to defend her own rights, but not that she intends to invade those of others. Peace will probably continue for a long course of years: and trade will certainly rebound with an elasticity proportioned to its late compression, and flourish more than it ever has done in any period.

The conduct of Spain, in the late contest between Great Britain and America, appears a striking instance of political infatuation: the wealth of that nation lies in its islands in the West Indies, and its provinces on the American Continent. Is it possible that she could wish to see a mighty independent empire of confederated republics established in the neighbourhood of all her treasures? It is probable that the Spaniards never imagined that the American struggle would have terminated as it has done. England, they expected, would retain her sovereignty over at least a part of her colonies; and it is evident they wished she should. The Spanish Monarch offered to mediate a peace between America and England, on the footing of *uti possidetis*, at a time when the latter was in possession of Canada, Nova Scotia, New York, the Floridas, Georgia, and the Carolinas. These views were wise and solid: for thus two rival powers would have been established in North America, and the dominions of Spain would have found safety in their mutual contention. The Spanish nation is undoubtedly much disconcerted by the emancipation of the British colonies. North America, freed from all European controul, will be at liberty to break with Spain at any time, without disturbing the peace of Europe, or interesting any of its powers in the quarrel. The family connection between the courts of France and Spain, and the desire of revenge for former losses, have prompted Spain to aid a power that must soon prove fatal to her dominions in the western world.

It has been said, that France, having valuable possessions in the West Indies, ought also to have dreaded the independence of North America, from a similar cause. But it ought to be considered, that the possessions of France being islands, can have nothing to apprehend from the independent sovereignty of the United States. France, strengthened by extended commerce, will at all times have a fleet sufficient to protect her foreign dependencies; and it can never be the interest of America to have any concern with the French West India islands, but in the way of trade. At any rate, the period of the adjacent islands being annexed to the sovereignty of America, does not appear to be so near, as some may imagine. A long course of time must elapse, before the United States of America can equip a naval force, equal to the British, or even to the

* When a deputation of the Tobago Merchants waited on Mr. Rayneval, the conversation turned on the restoration of the Floridas to Spain. He said, smiling, the King of Spain loves to have a great tract of territory.

combined fleets of the two branches of Bourbon. But with respect to Spain, the position of America is different. Before the present peace, nothing separated these powers but a river. The cession of the Floridas to Spain was one of the wisest articles, on the part of Great Britain, in the late pacification. Their vicinity to the American provinces will precipitate a quarrel between the United States and Spain. The contrariety of the dispositions, manners, and habits of the North Americans, and Spaniards, is such, that it is impossible they should live together, for any time, in amity. The rupture is likely to happen the sooner, that both these nations consider themselves as having been victorious in the late war. Success awakes and nourishes ambition. Both America and Spain are too proud, tamely to suffer any of those encroachments and insults, which must unavoidably arise from the vicinity of their dominions.

The conduct of the United Provinces of the Netherlands, in the late contest, appears as unaccountable upon any principles of sound policy, as that of Spain. The United Provinces had long been in close alliance with Great Britain. The principal object of that alliance was their common safety, and protection against the ambitious designs of a dangerous neighbour. In the recent war, these States joined their arms with those of France, to humble a power that supports their independence on that new ally, and to raise up to themselves a most dangerous rival in every branch of trade. The two great sources of the Dutch wealth and power, are their fisheries, and their freights for other nations. In both these, America must soon interfere with them. The New Englanders began to rival them in those branches before the war. And there is not a doubt but they will resume them now, and carry them on with success.

The Emperor, and the King of Prussia, not being commercial powers, were but little interested in the contest between England and her colonies. It is, however, matter of surprize, that the emperor did not seize the opportunity, which the juncture of the times, and the situation of Holland afforded, of opening the navigation of the *Scheldt*, and reviving the commerce of *Antwerp*, once the emporium of the world, and whose inhabitants possess, even at this day, wealth sufficient to form a stock for an extensive trade. There is ground to imagine, that this political and ambitious prince meditates an attack on the Turkish dominions in Europe. His war-like preparations must have some object; and when we consider the symptoms of alarm that appear in the Ottoman Porte, there is no object that appears so likely to be the real one, as that which has been mentioned. If time should prove the justness of this conjecture, the world will not be at a loss to account for the inactivity of the Emperor, on an occasion which seemed to tempt his ambition. With so grand an enterprize in contemplation as an attack on the Turkish empire, it would have been impolitic, to have taken a step which would have provoked the resentment of the Dutch, and alarmed the jealousy of Prussia.

It is not improbable, that Prussia and Russia may be invited by the Emperor to promote his designs against the Turks, by the promise of a share

share in the plunder. The partition of Poland will draw after it many important consequences. Ambitious and powerful princes have found out a very convenient method of making conquests. It is an easier, as well a more advantageous plan of policy, to unite their arms, for the purpose of plundering some neighbouring power, than to go to war with each other.

If the Turks, in order to avert the impending storm, shall make important sacrifices, in respect to trade: if they shall open to the Russians and Austrians, the navigation of, what we shall call, the Turkish seas; a rivalry and jealousy of trade would arise between these nations of the one part, and France of the other, as this kingdom has long been in possession of the greatest share of the Levant trade. This jealousy and competition would not be unimportant to Britain, as it would draw those bonds still closer, that unite her with the courts of Petersburg and Vienna in political interests and friendship.

With respect to the great northern powers, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia; the emancipation and aggrandizement of North America, appears to be no very desirable revolution to them, more than to Holland. Their productions are the same with those of North America in every article, rice and indigo, which can never be a foundation for any great extent of commerce, only excepted. Russia raises tobacco for its own consumption, and begins to export large quantities to its neighbours. Flax, hemp, tar, rosin, tallow, hides, honey, wax, wood, iron, &c. &c. which form the staple commodities of the great northern European nations, are also the staple commodities of North America. Their interests undoubtedly interfere in the most essential points: and there does not appear between these powers, any thing of that *concordia discors*, which arises from a reciprocity of redundancies and of wants, and which unites kingdoms differing in respect of climate, soil, and natural productions, in the bands of commerce, and mutual intercourse and friendship.

If England has suffered an immense loss in the emancipation of her colonies, it is perhaps, some consolation, that a free trade with North America, will contribute to the prosperity of her friends and allies, Portugal and Ireland. The first of these kingdoms will find in North America a market for its fruits and wines; the second, for its linen and woollen manufactures: the situation of both, which is precisely in the same degrees of west longitude, is the happiest in Europe for commerce with the new world.

The situation of Great Britain between the northern and southern kingdoms of Europe, and at the same time so convenient for transatlantic commerce; her credit, her stock, her habits of manufacture and commerce, her being in possession, in respect of so many articles of the market, her affinity to America in blood, manners, customs, and religion: all these circumstances afford grounds of hope, that extended and free commerce will increase the wealth of this, as much as of any other country, that in trade she will still hold one of the first stations, and share largely in the general scramble. If she no longer monopolizes the trade of North America, other channels are not wanting, in which the industry of England may be

be fully and profitably exerted. The loss of our exclusive trade with North America, may be compensated by an increase of commerce with Russia, in consequence of that increase of wants, which arises from the advances made in civilization throughout that extensive empire. It will be wisdom in the Court of London to cultivate a good correspondence with that of Petersburg: and it will be wisdom in Russia to promote the greatness of England. For, should England ever become subordinate to France, the latter would give the law both in the Mediterranean and the British seas, and controul the power of every commercial rival. It is the interest of Russia to hold the balance between these contending nations, and to support a power whose friendly ports are ever open to receive her fleets amidst the storms, whether of the raging elements, or of war.

It is curious to remark the power of the various sympathies and antipathies that divide or unite different tribes of mortals. Among the sympathies that unite men, there is scarcely any so powerful as a sameness of language. On this account it is fortunate that the English language is planted and has taken such root in North America, that it must flourish on that continent for ages. The time indeed will come when an American and an Englishman will as little understand each other's language, as an Englishman does that of a Dane, a Swede, or a German: and when an American antiquary shall delight in tracing the affinity between his own and the English tongue, in the same manner that a British antiquary traces the resemblance between the English language and that of Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany. But that period is remote: and before it arrives many important revolutions will have totally changed the present state of the world. The French nation, sensible of the political importance of language, have laboured to give stability to their own, and to extend its empire over the world. In Russia the number of persons who have been sent out, by the Court of Versailles, and encouraged to propagate the French language in that empire is prodigious. The prevalence of the French language and French manners at Petersburg, has operated no inconsiderable political effects. It has given a prepossession in some instances in favour of France and against England.

The present month of February, an æra that will for ever be memorable in the history of Europe, has given a fresh proof of the fluctuation and change, and spirit of party, which have so long disgraced English councils, and which have in fact dismembered the British empire. A coalition has taken place between the leaders of two great factions; Lord North and Mr. Fox. This is the fourth change of ministers in the course of twelve months. It was consistent in Lord North to reprobate the terms of the present peace. The direktion of the loyalists, the concessions made to the enemies of Britain in every part of the globe, without any concessions on their part in return, and the bribe that was given to the Americans by Lord Shelburne, through the hands of that executioner of his country, Mr. R——d O——d, are circumstances which justify the opposition that was made to a motion for applauding the conduct of the minister of the day, and those who ranged themselves under his standard. It is not so easy to reconcile the present

present conduct of Mr. Fox to *his former* declarations. When he came into power the nation was in a deplorable situation, our fleet was unable to cope with that of France and Spain, and peace on any terms was preferable to war. Now he finds it convenient to say the navy, by the exertions of his relation Lord Keppel, has started up, in the course of a few months to a degree of respectability that is formidable to the world, which gives Britain a title to dictate, not so receive the terms of peace. How great the credulity, or how violent the animosities of a nation in which such assertions can be made without shame, and received with acclaim and approbation!

The nation at this moment waits for the new arrangements that are to form an administration, without any visible signs of curiosity or anxiety. Its curiosity, concerning political revolutions, seems to be somewhat blunted by the rapid changes that have happened so often in the Cabinet. Is it possible that Lord North and Mr. Fox can go long hand in hand, and conduct the affairs of the public with harmony and concord? How are they to settle between them the important point of the reformation of the constitution? Or is Lord North to relinquish his former principles, and to sit in that Cabinet which pursues measures, in his opinion, ruinous to the nation?

The fate of the Earl of Shelburne will be but little regretted by those who recollect the craft and duplicity of his conduct. In order to obtain the favour of his sovereign, and of all who wished for the prosperity and glory of England, he openly maintained that the *King of England would set the moment Independence should be granted to America*. The inference to be drawn from this language plainly was, that if he were at the head of administration, he would make some noble efforts for restoring the power and the fame of Great Britain. But more anxious to secure his own power, he concluded hasty peace: at this moment however he has the mortification of being driven from office, after having exhibited the most striking proofs that can be conceived, of artifice and inconsistency of conduct. It is said that he had formed an admirable plan of finance: on this account perhaps his fall is to be lamented. The fluctuation that takes place in the British Cabinet, must needs excite a degree of alarm in foreign states. They may imagine that a nation which has so strongly expressed her disapprobation of the terms of peace, will soon prepare for war. But such suspicions, if they exist, are not well founded. Whatever administration succeeds will avoid, if possible, a renewal of hostilities, and study to maintain peace, as the greatest security of their own power. The refusal of the House of Commons to approve the terms of peace, manifests, that the spirit of the nation is yet high, and scorns to submit without some marks of feeling, to disgrace and humiliation.

THE

ENGLISH REVIEW,

For MARCH, 1783.

ART I. *The History of the Progress and Termination of the Roman Republic.* By Adam Ferguson, L. L. D. Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh. Illustrated with Maps, 4to. 3 vols. 2l. 12s. 6d. boards. Strahan and Cadell.

IT is a common observation, that though eminent philosophers and divines have distinguished themselves in Great Britain at an early period, it cannot boast of any accomplished historian till of late times. This observation, however, we must confess, does not appear to us to be perfectly well founded. It is our opinion that in a free state or government, the study of history must necessarily be one of the earliest departments in literature that will be cultivated with care. Nor are there wanting sufficient authorities to support this position. Sir Walter Raleigh who was illustrious not only as a courtier and a soldier, but as a man of genius, wrote history with more advantages than any writer we know of in the present age. Sir Thomas More excelled in historical paintings and descriptions. Sir Francis Bacon displayed an expressive eloquence and profound wisdom in his account of the reign of Henry VII. And my Lord Herbert has portrayed the actions of Henry VIII. with a precision, a perspicuity, and a discernment which have been seldom either equalled or surpassed.

But though our more ancient historians are deservedly illustrious, it is not to be denied, that in our own times, many historical writers have attained to a high reputation and celebrity. The present age seems to be peculiarly fond of historical studies; and its encouragement has produced many competitors in a literary province, which affords perhaps, the most extensive scope for the exertions of ability and genius.

REV. Vol. I. Mar. 1783.

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Dr.

Dr. Ferguson, who has advanced himself to a place among philosophers by his essay concerning civil society, has published the *History of the Progress and Termination of the Roman Republic*; and it must be allowed that this performance entitles him to no inferior rank among the historians who now flourish in Great Britain.

The subject he undertakes is of great grandeur. It comprehends the most instructive revolutions of fortune. It exhibits a wide and extended picture of mankind; and refers to transactions under aspects the most various, and the most interesting. It includes the most singular and the most eminent men, who have sustained the honours of their kind, and affords the brightest examples of political ability, military prowess, and public virtue and probity. Its importance indeed cannot be disputed; and it is our purpose to consider the propriety with which he has executed the difficult task in which he has engaged.

The chief object which the learned Author had in view, in the volumes before us, was to detail 'the great revolution, by which the republican form of government was exchanged for despotism; and by which the Roman people, from being joint sovereigns of a great empire, became, together with their own provinces, the subjects, and often the prey, of a tyranny, which was equally cruel to both'*. This design, while it is limited in its nature, is philosophical and systematic in its tendency; and upon these accounts, we must own, that we cannot but object to it. 1. From the limited intention of the Historian it results that he hurries over the darker ages of the Roman story with a rapidity that precludes instruction; and as every book ought to be perfect in itself and satisfactory, the Reader feels the uneasiness of traversing at full gallop over fields which he meant to examine with an anxious curiosity. 2. From the philosophical or systematic object of exhibiting chiefly the revolution of the Roman government from the republican form to the miseries of despotism, it follows that the narration of the Author has imbibed a suspicious tincture. An accurate observer perceives him pressing to one particular point; and he cannot easily be convinced that this direction of his mind does not mislead his understanding and perplex his industry. We must therefore acknowledge, that it would have pleased us better, if the Author had begun his narration with the building of Rome, and

had continued a full, a detailed, and regular exhibition of facts to the despotical times of the Emperors.

But though Dr. Ferguson from what we conceive to be a defect of his plan, has neglected too much the earlier history of the Romans, it is to be observed, that he has attended with care to the origin and progress of the Roman constitution. This portion of his work is instructive and interesting. It illustrates in a forcible degree his knowledge of affairs, and his political sagacity.

From the æra of Tiberius Gracchus, our Author enters more minutely into the transactions of the Romans; and from this point he carries down a complete and orderly narrative to the dominations of Tiberius and Caius. This is a noble career of story; and, upon the whole, he travels over it successfully. He appears to be generally well informed; his carriage is vigorous and manly; and there is a simple majesty in his style. To go over the ground he has trod would however neither suit the limits of our journal, nor be proper in itself; but before we proceed to offer critically our opinion of his merit, it is fit, that we lay before our Readers some specimens of his performance.

He accounts for the corruption of Rome at the time of Cataline's conspiracy in the following manner.

* Among the causes that helped to carry the characters of men in this age to such distant extremes, may be reckoned the philosophy of the Greeks, which was lately come into fashion, and which was much affected by the higher ranks of men in the State*. Literature being, by the difficulty and expence of multiplying copies of books, confined to persons having wealth and power, it was considered as a distinction of rank, and was received not only as an useful, but as a fashionable accomplishment†. The lessons of the school were considered as the elements of every liberal and active profession, and they were practised at the bar, in the field, in the senate, and every where in the conduct of real affairs. Philosophy was considered as an ornament, as well as a real foundation of strength, ability, and wisdom in the practice of life. Men of the world, instead of being ashamed of their sect, affected to employ its language on every important occasion, and to be governed by its rules so much as to assume, in compliance with particular systems, distinctions of manners, and even of dress. They embraced their forms in philosophy, as the sectaries in modern times have embraced theirs in religion; and probably in the one case honoured their choice by the sincerity of their faith and the regularity of their practice, much in the same degree as they have done in the other.

† In these latter times of the Roman republic the sect of Epicurus

* Vid. Cicero's Philosophical Works. † The grandes had their slaves sometimes educated to serve as secretaries to themselves, or as preceptors to their children.

appears to have prevailed; and what Fabricius wished, on hearing the tenets of this philosophy, for the enemies of Rome, had now befallen her citizens*. Men were gladdened with national prosperity; they thought that they were born to enjoy what their fathers had won, and saw not the use of those austere and arduous virtues by which the State had increased to its present greatness. The votaries of this sect ascribed the formation of the world to chance, and denied the existence of providence. They resolved the distinctions of right and wrong, of honour and dishonour, into mere appellations of pleasure and pain. Every man's pleasure was to himself the supreme rule of estimation and of action. All good was private. The public was a mere imposture, that might be successfully employed, perhaps to defraud the ignorant of their private enjoyments, while it furnished the conveniences of the wise†. To persons so instructed, the care of families and of states, with whatever else broke in upon the enjoyments of pleasure and ease, must appear among the follies of human life. And a sect under these imputations might be considered as patrons of licentiousness, both in morality and religion, and declared enemies to mankind. Yet the Epicureans, when urged in argument by their opponents, made some concessions in religion, and many more in morality. They admitted the existence of gods, but supposed these beings of too exalted a nature to have any concern in human affairs. They owned that, although the value of virtue was to be measured by the pleasure it gave, yet true pleasure was to be found in virtue alone; and that it might be enjoyed in the highest degree even in the midst of bodily pain. Notwithstanding this decision on the side of morality, the ordinary language of this sect, representing virtue as a more prudent choice among the pleasures to which men are variously addicted, served to suppress the specific sentiments of conscience and elevation of mind, and to change the reproaches of criminality, profligacy, or villainy, by which even bad men are restrained from iniquity, into mere imputations of mistake, or variations of taste.

* Other sects, particularly that of the Stoicks, maintained, almost in every particular, the reverse of those tenets. They maintained the reality of Providence, and of a common interest of goodness and of justice, for which Providence was exerted, and in which all rational creatures were deeply concerned. They allowed, that in the nature of things there are many grounds upon which we prefer or reject the objects that present themselves to us, but that the choice which we make, not the event of our efforts, decides our happiness or our misery; that right and wrong are the most important and the only grounds upon which we can at all times safely proceed in our choice, and that, in comparison to this difference, every thing else is of no account; that a just man will ever act as if there was no

* See Plutarch. in Pyrr. The philosopher Cynæas, in the hearing of Fabricius, entertained his prince with an argument, to prove that pleasure was the chief good. Fabricius wished that the enemies of Rome might long entertain such tenets.

† Cicero in Pisonem.

thing good but what is right, and nothing evil but what is wrong; that the Epicureans mistook human nature when they supposed all its principles resolvable into appetites for pleasure, or aversions to pain; that honour and dishonour, excellence and defect, were considerations which not only led to much nobler ends, but which were of much greater power in commanding the human will; the love of pleasure was groveling and vile, was the source of dissipation and of sloth; the love of excellence and honour was aspiring and noble, and led to the greatest exertions and the highest attainments of our nature. They maintained that there is no private good separate from the public good; that the same qualities of the understanding and the heart, wisdom, benevolence, and courage, which are good for the individual, are so likewise for the public; that these blessings every man may possess, independent of fortune or the will of other men; and that whoever does possess them has nothing to hope, and nothing to fear, and can have but one sort of emotion, that of satisfaction and joy; that his affections, and the maxims of his station, as a creature of God, and as a member of society, lead him to act for the good of mankind: and that for himself he has nothing more to desire, than the happiness of acting this part. These, they said, were the recta of reason leading to perfection, which ought to be the aim of every person who means to preserve his integrity, or to consult his happiness, and towards which every one may advance, although no one has actually reached it.

Other sects affected to find a middle way between these extremes, and attempted, in speculation, to render their doctrines more plausible; that is, more agreeable to common opinions than either; but were, in fact, of no farther moment in human life than as they approached to the one or to the other of these opposite systems.

The death of Cæsar is thus described by Dr. Ferguson.

In the mean time Cæsar, at the persuasion of Decimus Brutus, though once determined to remain at home, had changed his mind, and was already in the streets, being carried to the Senate in his litter. Soon after he had left his own house, a slave came thither in haste, desired protection, and said he had a secret of the greatest moment to impart. He had probably overheard the conspirators, or had observed that they were armed; but not being aware how pressing the time was, he suffered himself to be detained till Cæsar's return. Others, probably, had observed circumstances which led to a discovery of the plot, and Cæsar had a billet to this effect given to him as he passed in the streets; he was intreated by the person who gave it instantly to read it; and he endeavoured to do so, but was prevented by the multitudes who crowded around him with numberless applications; and he still carried this paper in his hand when he entered the Senate.

Brutus and most of the conspirators had taken their places a little while before the arrival of Cæsar, and continued to be alarmed by many circumstances which tended to shake their resolution. Porcia, in the same moments, being in great agitation, exposed herself to public notice. She listened with anxiety to every noise in the streets; she dispatched, without any pretence of business, continual messages towards the place where the Senate was assembled; she asked every

person who came from that quarter if they observed what her husband was doing. Her spirit at last sunk under the effect of such violent emotions; she fainted away, and was carried for dead into her apartment. A message came to Brutus in the Senate with this account. He was much affected, but kept his place*. Popilius Lænas, who a little before seemed, from the expression he had dropped, to have got notice of their design, appeared to be in earnest conversation with Cæsar, as he lighted from his carriage. This left the conspirators no longer in doubt that they were discovered; and they made signs to each other, that it would be better to die by their own hands than to fall into the power of their enemy. But they saw of a sudden the countenance of Lænas change into a smile, and perceived that his conversation with Cæsar could not relate to such a business as theirs.

Cæsar's chair of state had been placed near to the pedestal of Pompey's statue. Numbers of the conspirators had seated themselves around it. Trebonius, under pretence of business, had taken Antony aside at the entrance of the theatre. Cimber, who, with others of the conspirators, met Cæsar in the portico, presented him with a petition in favour of his brother, who had been excepted from the late indemnity; and in urging the prayer of this petition, attended the Dictator to his place. Having there received a denial from Cæsar, uttered with some expressions of impatience at being so much importuned, he took hold of his robe, as if to press the intreaty. *Nay,* said Cæsar, *this is violence.* While he spoke these words, Cimber flung back the gown from his shoulders; and this being the signal agreed upon, called out to strike. Casca aimed the first blow. Cæsar started from his place, and in the first moment of surprise, pushed Cimber with one arm, and laid hold of Casca with the other. But he soon perceived that resistance was vain; and while the swords of the conspirators clashed with each other, in their way to his body, he wrapped himself up in his gown, and fell without any farther struggle. It was observed, in the superstition of the times, that in falling, the blood which sprung from his wounds sprinkled the pedestal of Pompey's statue. And thus having employed the greatest abilities to subdue his fellow citizens, with whom it would have been a much greater honour to have been able to live on terms of equality, he fell, in the height of his security, a sacrifice to their just indignation; a striking example of what the arrogant have to fear in trifling with the feelings of a free people, and at the same time a lesson of jealousy and of cruelty to tyrants, or an admonition not to spare, in the exercise of their power, those whom they may have insulted by usurping it.

When the body lay breathless on the ground, Cassius called out, that there lay the worst of men †. Brutus called upon the Senate to judge of the transaction which had passed before them, and was proceeding to state the motives of those who were concerned in it, when the members, who had for a moment stood in silent amazement, rose on a sudden, and began to separate in great consternation. All

* Plut. in Bruto.

† Cic. ad. Famil. lib. xii. ep. 1. Nequissimum occisum esse.

those

those who had come to the Senate in the train of Cæsar, his Lictors, the ordinary officers of State, citizens and foreigners, with many servants and dependants of every sort, had been instantly seized with a panic; and as if the swords of the conspirators were drawn against themselves, had already rushed into the streets, and carried terror and confusion wherever they went. The Senators themselves now followed. No man had presence of mind to give any account of what had happened, but repeated the cry that was usual on great alarms for all persons to withdraw, and to shut up their habitations and shops. This cry was communicated from one to another in the streets. The people, imagining that a general massacre was somewhere begun, shut up and barred all their doors as in the dead of night, and every one prepared to defend his own habitation.

In the art of historical composition, there is one improvement which the moderns have made upon the ancients. We allude to that spirit of philosophy with which the most distinguished of the modern historians have adorned and characterised their productions. Voltaire, we believe, was the father of this refinement; and he has been imitated in it, and perhaps surpassed by other writers. In this refinement Dr. Ferguson has great merit. He scatters every where throughout his work the lights of a philosophic mind.

But while we commend the Author for adopting this modern improvement, we must condemn him for avoiding to follow the practice of the ancients, who upon grand occasions put speeches into the mouths of great actors. We know that Pere Daniel and other historians of eminence have objected to speeches as in some degree contradictory to truth, and as embellishments that are chiefly rhetorical. But it is past even the suspicion of a doubt, that speeches afford both a dignity and spirit to history; and that their disuse is principally to be ascribed to the inferiority of the modern historians to the ancient, with respect to knowledge and ability. Thucydides, Livy, Sallust, Tacitus, and the most admired historians of antiquity, having communicated a sanction to this exercise, we cannot conceive that there is any proper reason, why a modern narrator of ancient story should neglect it. For though he might be unequal of himself to compose harangues of conspicuous merit, he might translate or imitate his authorities. He might shine by a borrowed or reflected lustre. We mean not, however, to insinuate, that the Author was not possessed of talents sufficient for the composition of speeches. On the contrary, we are of opinion, that his genius and studies have qualified him for this employment; and it is an object of our regret, that he has not felt an ambition to signalize himself by it. Nor has the practice been so reprobated in modern times as to be without an example. It has been followed by Guicci-

ardini, Bentivoglio, and Lord Bacon. It is a common mistake in the Critics to fancy that this art was copied from Homer by the ancient historians. It has its rise not in fiction but in reality; for generals at the head of armies, and statesmen in the midst of debates made known by it their sensibility, and discovered the ascendancy of their talents.

Here, however, the narrow limits of our work compel us to stop for the present. In our next number we shall continue our observations; and while we shall venture to ascertain the character of this historian, we shall offer some strictures upon the peculiarities of his manner and language.

Art. II. Natural History. General and Particular. By the Count de Buffon. Translated into English. Illustrated with 301 Copper Plates, and occasional Notes and Observations. By the Translator. 8vo, 8 vols. 3l. 12s. bound. Strahan.

THE Count de Buffon possesses talents which are likely to acquire popularity, and which deserve it. In his own country, indeed, he has long since attained this great object of the schemes of the politician, and the lucubrations of the writer: but having never yet been presented to the English reader in a dress becoming the splendour of his accomplishments, he is not sufficiently known to the multitudes who seek not for knowledge or amusement beyond the limits of their native tongue. Perhaps no instance can be produced, in which nature has been more profuse of those gifts, which are requisite to attain just ideas of her majestic, and infinitely varied productions, and to describe them in a manner worthy their extent and grandeur. If he be considered with respect to his powers of composition, he must be allowed to be such, as a nation eager of the praise of superior elegance, may justly adduce in support of her claims. The most elaborate writers of France abound in thoughts and expressions in the highest degree offensive to readers of just taste. But in the voluminous works of Buffon, it would not perhaps be easy to find a single instance of conceit, antithesis, or, what has been denominated *unsel* by Boileau and Addison*. When he descends to minute description, he is perspicuous, easy, and unaffected. When he surveys the magnificence of nature, his conceptions and expressions rise to the elevation of his subject, and the mind is expanded by the same glow of pleasure which attends the

* What Quintilian has observed of the father of poetry, may be applied on the present occasion. *Hunc nemo in magnis sublimitate, in parvis proprietate superaverit. Idem lætus ac pressus, jucundus & gravis, tum copia, tum gravitate mirabilis.*

parafal of the moft fublime paffages of Homer and Shafpeare. If we confider him as a teacher of natural fci-ence, our regard to truth will forbid us to beftow fuch unlimited encomiums. It is indeed true, that unlimited encomiums can feldom be applied to the performances of man, but it is the duty of the critic to compare the object of his examination with the idea of perfection. Befides, if we miftake not, fuch defects as will not admit of an eafy excufe, may be pointed out in the doctrines of the Count de Buffon. As the bright part of his character, we are willing to adopt the following words of his Translator. " This learned and eloquent writer, fays he, has introduced into his fubjects a greater variety of difquifition, and given more comprehensive views of nature, than any preceding or contemporary hiftorian. His facts are, in general, collected with judgment and fidelity; and his reasonings and inferences are not only bold and ingenious, but adorned with all the beauties of expreffion, and all the charms of novelty. They every where lead to reflections which are momentous and interefting. They expand the mind and banifh prejudices. They create an elevation of thought and cherifh an ardour of enquiry. They open many great and delightful profpects of the oeconomy of nature, and of the alterations and accidents to which fhe is liable, of the caufes of her improvement or degeneration, and of the general relations that connect the whole, and give rife to all the diverfities which characterize and conftitute particular orders of exiftence."

Such and fo many are his excellencies. But on the other hand it fhould be remembered, that his faults are fcarcely lefs glaring or lefs numerous. His fkill in Anatomy and Chemistry, the two pillars on which Natural Hiftory is fupported, is not fufficiently particular and exact. In confirmation of this censure we may refer to his repeated and pointed rejection of final caufes. For it is hardly poffible that great anatomical knowledge can confift with fuch an opinion. His pofitive denial of the exiftence of the Hymen may be quoted as another proof of the fame affertion. If he had been verfed in Chemistry, he never could have maintained that the argillaceous and filiceous earths are identical. It has alfo been obferved by an author, who to all the great qualities which the Count de Buffon poffeffes, added all that he wants, that he did not repeat and diverfify his experiments with fufficient conftancy, and that he did not enquire after and attend to the weighty objections that were brought againft his hypotheses*. " His reasonings and inferences

are

* Professor Zimmerman in his *Specimen Zoologiae Geographicæ*, fpeak-

THESE MEMORANDUMS ARE CONFIDENTIAL. It is a common
mistake to think that this set was copied from
the original memorandum. It has its file not in-
cluded in the general set of records, and
therefore it is not as generally known by it
as the memorandum of the activities of their talents.

THE NATIONAL ANTHROPOLOGICAL ARCHIVES AT OUR WORK COMPEL
US TO BE FAIR IN OUR NEW MEMBER WE SHALL
BE THE ANTHROPOLOGICAL ARCHIVES AND WHILE WE ARE VENTURE TO AT-
TEND TO THE INTERESTS OF THE NATIONAL, WE HAVE OFFER SOME
OF THE BEST IN VENTURES IN ITS HISTORY AND LANGUAGE.

By the Court do
with 301 Copper
By the Transla-

The first of these is the *Letter to the Duke of Devonshire*, which is likely to be the most valuable of the whole. In this letter, written in 1793, Burke is at his best. He is not only a great statesman, but a great writer. His style is clear, strong, and full of life. He is not only a great writer, but a great man. His words are full of wisdom and courage. He is not only a great man, but a great friend. His words are full of love and kindness. He is not only a great friend, but a great hero. His words are full of truth and justice.

1. The first group of people who were interviewed were the police officers who were involved in the investigation of the case. They were asked to provide information on the circumstances of the case, the evidence that was collected, and the results of the investigation.

[The page contains extremely faint, illegible text, likely due to poor scan quality or extreme fading.]

are bold and ingenious," says his Translator. They are indeed too frequently bold, even to temerity. And we will take the present opportunity of observing, that Mr. Smellie though he did not choose, as he expresses it, to write a commentary on his Author, yet, for the sake of his unlearned readers, might, and certainly ought to have pointed out such of his opinions as are now commonly considered as erroneous. Those who are desirous of seeing his notions on the formation of the planets, the revolutions which the terraqueous globe has undergone, and the causes that are at present producing great changes upon it, considered at full length, will meet with abundant satisfaction on consulting M. de Lue's *Lettres Morales & Physiques*. Haller in his *Elementa Physiologiæ* has briefly, but ably refuted his system of generation. Those who have read *Spalanzani's Opuscoli* will not be inclined to pay much deference to his organic molecules. In the same view Bonnet's considerations *Sur les Corps Organises*, may also be referred to, especially the late edition.

After having thus endeavoured to lay before our Readers a slight sketch of the French original, we shall now proceed to enquire into the merits of the translation. The versions of French authors in general with which the shops abound, are well known to be among the productions that are most disgraceful to the literature of our island. They consist for the most part of an unintelligible assemblage of English words arranged according to the French idiom, and are justly considered by our great critic and lexicographer, as the most dangerous source of corruption by which the English tongue is threatened.

We had not proceeded far in our perusal of the translation in question, before we were satisfied that such strictures were by no means applicable to it, and that in point of propriety and elegance of expression, there was not much room for objection, and we felt ourselves disposed to congratulate the public, that the task of transmitting the beauties of Buffon, had fallen into the hands of a man of taste and judgment. But another, and perhaps more important point remained to be ascertained, viz. whether he had added accuracy and fidelity to propriety and elegance.

Speaking of some sources of information with which M. de Buffon should have been acquainted, remarks, that the French do not pay such attention to German literature as the Germans to French literature. The truth is, that although M. de Buffon cannot be reproached with this defect in so great a degree as most of his countrymen, yet his enquiries among foreign authors have not been sufficiently extensive.

In order to determine this, it became necessary to compare carefully the translation with the original. We shall be better able to lay before our readers the result of this comparison, by a quotation and a few remarks in the margin, than by any general terms we could employ. For this purpose we shall take without selection the first passage that occurs.

Man changes the natural condition of animals, by forcing them to obey and to serve him. A domestic animal is a slave destined to the amusement, or to aid the operations of men. The abuses to which he is too frequently subjected, joined to the unnatural mode of his living, induce great alterations both in his manners and dispositions*. But a savage animal, obedient to nature alone, knows no laws but those of appetite and independence: Thus the history of savage animals is limited to a small number of facts, the results of pure nature. But the history of domestic animals is complicated, and warped† with every thing relative to the arts employed in taming and subduing the native wildness of their tempers: and, as we are ignorant what influence habit, restraint, and example, may have in changing the manners, determinations, movements, and inclinations of animals, it is the duty of the naturalist to examine them with care, and to distinguish those facts which depend solely on instinct, from those that originate from education; to ascertain what is proper to them from what is borrowed; to separate artifice from nature; and never to confound the animal with the slave, the beast of burden with the creature of God.

Man holds a legitimate dominion over the brute animals, which no revolution can destroy. It is the dominion of mind over matter; a right of nature founded upon unalterable laws, a gift of the Almighty, by which man is enabled at all times to perceive the dignity of his being. For his power is not derived from his being the most perfect, the strongest, or the most dexterous of all animals. If he hold only the first rank in the order of animals, the inferior tribes would unite and dispute his title to sovereignty. But man reigns and commands from the superiority of his nature: He thinks; and therefore he is master of all beings who are not endowed with this inestimable talent‡. Material bodies are likewise subject to his power: To his will they can oppose only a gross resistance, or an obstinate inflexibility, which his hand is always able to overcome, by making them act against each other. He is master of the vegetable tribes, which, by his industry, he can, at pleasure, augment

* This is very wide of the original, which runs thus. Un animal domestique est un esclave dont on s'abuse, qu'on altère, qu'on dépeuple & que l'on dénature, tandis que l'animal sauvage n'obéit que à la nature, ne connoît d'autres loix que celles du besoin & de sa liberté.

† There is no word answering to warped in the original. To warp an history with every thing, &c. is not an happy expression.

‡ The original is more simple and more energetic; il pense & dès-lors il est maître des etres qui ne pensent point.

or diminish, multiply or destroy*. He reigns over the animal creation; because, like them, he is not only endowed with sentiment and the power of motion, but because he thinks, distinguishes ends and means, directs his actions, concert his operations, overcomes force by ingenuity, and swiftness by perseverance†.

Among animals, however, some are more soft and gentle, others more savage and ferocious. When we compare the docility and submissive temper of the dog with the fierceness and rapacity of the tiger, the one appears to be the friend, and the other the enemy of man. Thus his empire over the animals is not absolute. Many species elude his power, by the rapidity of their flight, by the swiftness of their course, by the obscurity of their retreats, by the element which they inhabit: Others escape him by the minuteness of their bodies; and others, instead of acknowledging their sovereign, attack him with open hostility. He is likewise insulted with the stings of insects, and the poisonous bites of serpents‡; and he is often incommoded with impure and useless creatures, which seem to exist for no other purpose but to form the shade between good and evil, and to make man feel how little, since his fall, he is respected.

But the empire of God must be distinguished from the limited dominion of man. God, the creator of all being, is the sole governor of nature. Man has no influence on the universe||, the motions of the heavenly bodies, or the revolutions of the globe which he inhabits. He has no general dominion over animals, vegetables, or minerals. His power extends not to species, but is limited to individuals; for species and the great body of matter belongs to, or rather constitutes nature. Every thing moves on, perishes, or is renewed by an irresistible power§. Man himself, hurried along by the torrent of time, cannot prolong his existence. Connected, by means of his body, to matter, he is forced to submit to the universal law, and, like all other organized beings, he is born, grows, and perishes.

But the ray of divinity with which man is animated, ennobles and elevates him above every material existence. This spiritual substance, so far from being subject to matter, is entitled to govern it; and though the mind cannot command the whole of nature, she rules over individual beings. God, the source of all light and of all

* Here is an omission of the words "renouveler, dénaturer," nor are the ideas they convey expressed.

† The Translator has dropped the fine allusion to mechanics, the science which perhaps affords the noblest proofs of human ingenuity, contained in the words "la vitesse par l'emploi du temps."

‡ To be insulted with the stings of insects is a proper expression, but insulted is too feeble a word to be applied to the "poisonous bites of serpents." Accordingly on referring to the original, we find it to run thus, "not to mention those insects, which seem to insult him (man) by their stings, those serpents, whose bite is fraught with poison and death, &c."

|| "Man has no influence on the universe," by no means conveys the full force of "il ne peut rien sur le produit de la création."

§ The original is tout se passe, se suit, se succède, se renouvelle, & se meut par une puissance irrésistible.

intel-

intelligent, governs the universe, and every species*, with infinite power: Man, who possesses only a ray of this intelligence, enjoys, accordingly, a power limited to individuals, and to small portions of matter.

It is, therefore, apparent, that man has been enabled to subdue the animal creation, not by force, or the other qualities of matter, but by the powers of his mind. In the first ages of the world, all animals were equally independent. Man, after he became criminal and savage, was not in a condition to tame them. Before he could distinguish, choicet, and reduce animals to a domestic state, before he could instruct and command them, he behoved to be civilised himself; and the empire over the animals, like all other empires, could not be established previous to the institution of society.

Man derives all his power from society, which matures his reason, exercises his genius, and unites his force. Before the formation of society, man was perhaps the most savage and the least formidable of all animals. Naked, without shelter, and destitute of arms, the earth was to him only a vast desert peopled with monsters, of which he often became the prey: And, even long after this period, history informs us, that the first heroes were only destroyers of wild beasts.

But, when the human species multiplied and spread over the earth, and when, by means of society and the arts, man was enabled to conquer the universe†, he made the wild beasts gradually retire; he purged the earth of those gigantic animals, whose enormous bones are still to be found; he destroyed, or reduced to a small number, the voracious and hurtful species; he opposed one animal to another; and, subduing some by address, and others by force‡, and attacking all by reason and art, he acquired to himself perfect security, and established an empire, which knows no other limits than inaccessible solitudes, burning sands, frozen mountains, or dark caverns, which serve as retreats to a few species of ferocious animals§.

In the first paragraph of the article of the horse, in which the author has so well described the fire and spirit on some occasions, and the gentleness and docility on others, of this noble animal, the Translator by dropping some expressions, and altering others, has very much weakened the effect of

* "Les espèces entières" is not well rendered by "every species."

† "Choicet" is not an English verb: this is a Scotchism of the Translator, not an error of the press, otherwise it would have been corrected in the table of errata.

‡ A very energetic phrase is here reduced to a very feeble one. The original is "à se marquer en force pour conquerir l'univers."

§ Here is another instance of the omission of a whole sentence. Ou les ecartant par la nombre, has nothing to correspond with it in the translation.

§ "Ferocious animals," and animaux indomptables, differ considerably. There are many animals ferocious in a state of nature, which human ingenuity has found the means of taming.

the picture; for both in painting and in composition, the judicious addition of certain little circumstances, gives grace and animation, while their omission produces deformity and dulness.

Almost every page in the work would afford us an opportunity of multiplying these remarks, but the narrow limits of our publication will not allow us to proceed farther in such details. It is surely unnecessary to offer any apology for the seeming minuteness of these strictures; for general criticism is on all occasions uninstrucive and uninteresting; and with respect to translations in particular, it should be remembered that their value can only be estimated, from the total amount of such minutiae.

The conclusion we would draw from the whole is, that the Translator has too often and too widely deviated from both the letter and the spirit of the original. We are by no means advocates for strictly literal versions; but we think that Mr. Smellie might have united equal elegance and greater fidelity. Some passages would almost warrant the suspicion, that from the want of an intimate acquaintance with the French idiom, he did not always fully comprehend the meaning of his author*.

Words and phrases in themselves awkward and improper, very seldom occur in this translation, as we have already hinted; yet a nice eye may distinguish a few, such as, "affectable by present objects." "Horses may be *easier* broke," (for more easily broken). "To think in great." "Penser en grand" may be very good French, but it might have been rendered by a better English phrase than that which Mr. Smellie has adopted.

The occasional notes and observations which the title page announces, will not detain us long. Those which belong to the Translator are neither numerous nor important†. The addition of short descriptive distinctions to each species, and of the synonyma of Klein, Linæus, Brisson, and other naturalists, was certainly judicious. Mr. Smellie has likewise omitted with equal propriety, "The method of study-

* This may have given rise to his adoption of a practice, too frequent both among translators and commentators, and of which, if we are not greatly mistaken, very evident traces may be discerned in the performance before us, we mean, that of passing by *scarcely* any sentence that may happen to require a little labour and address in explaining or rendering it.

† They consist chiefly of a brief account of the practices relating to the management of cattle followed in Great Britain, which, it seems, differ considerably from those of our neighbours on the continent.

the natural history, the reprehension of methodical distributions, and the mode of describing animals." The chief intention of these discourses is, as he justly observes, to ridicule the authors of systematic arrangements, and particularly the late ingenious and indefatigable Sir C. Linnaeus, whose zeal and labours in promoting the investigation of natural objects, merit the highest applause.

This translation is embellished with a great many copper-plates, essentially necessary for illustrating works of Natural History. They are copied from the French originals, and being engraved by Bell at Edinburgh, have neither (altho' executed in his best manner) much accuracy nor beauty to recommend them. This observation is by no means pointed illiberally at the engravers of Edinburgh: for the same objection will hold with respect to all attempts to engrave in these kingdoms out of the city of London. Nay it is also a fact, that were there artists to produce good engravings in any of our provincial towns, they would be spoilt in the printing; for it is in London alone, exclusive of every other place in the British dominions, where they have arrived at the art of working off copper-plates to a high pitch of perfection; in other words, to give impressions their best effect.

ART. III. *Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Court of King's Bench, in the 19th, 20th, and 21st years of George III.*
By Sylvester Douglas, Esquire, of Lincoln's Inn. Folio 11. 16s. boards. Cadell.

THIS volume of Reports (by the Author of the History of Cases of controverted Elections) is a valuable acquisition to the lawyers library. Many important cases are here reported upon almost every branch and rule of law; but particularly in regard to insurance, freight, bills of exchange, and other mercantile contracts; in the discussion of which many points that have been long floating in uncertainty, have at length been settled upon such principles of sound reasoning as to go far, with other modern reports, to fix the law of merchants upon a solid and rational basis.

As it is impossible for any legislature to frame such a code of general laws as might in all points be exactly adapted to the peculiar circumstances of every case, the intention of the law and of the parties must, of course, be often left to the legal discretion and discernment of the Court, to be shaped to the justice of the case by analogy to former decisions; and, as such decisions are only to be collected from the various books of reports, it must be unnecessary to dwell upon the usefulness of every publication of this kind, that is
framed.

framed with judgment, and conducted with accuracy. Indeed Mr. Douglas seems to have been particularly sensible how much the character of correctness must stamp a value upon his work, as he observes, "that no species of publication demands a more scrupulous accuracy than those histories of judicial proceedings and decisions to which the name of reports has been long appropriated." And he appears accordingly to have been remarkably solicitous to support the truth of his observation by every endeavour to render his own labours correct and satisfactory.

The following observations on the nature of reports in general, and of the records of court, are judicious; and suggest, at the same time, many grounds which might induce the learned Judges, who now preside in our Courts of Justice, to recommend to the legislature the re-establishment of the ancient office of *Reporters*; or at least to favour those gentlemen, who may voluntarily engage in such useful undertakings, with the judgments of the courts, and every other species of countenance and assistance which the Bench and the Bar can possibly afford.

The immediate province of the Courts of Justice is to administer the law in particular cases. But it is equally a branch of their duty, and one of still greater importance to the community, to expound the law they administer upon such principles of argument and construction as may furnish rules which shall govern in all similar or analogous cases.

Such are the various modifications of which property is susceptible, so boundless the diversity of relations which may arise in civil life, so infinite the possible combinations of events and circumstances, that they elude the power of enumeration, and are beyond the reach of human foresight. A moment's reflection, therefore, serves to evince, that it would be impossible, by positive and direct legislative authority, specially to provide for every particular case which may happen.

Hence it has been found expedient to entrust to the wisdom and experience of Judges, the power of deducing, from the more general propositions of the law, such necessary corollaries, as shall appear, though not expressed in words, to be within their intent and meaning.

Deductions thus formed, and established in the adjudication of particular causes become, in a manner, part of the text of the law. Succeeding Judges receive them as such, and, in general, consider themselves as bound to adhere to them no less strictly than to the express dictates of the legislature.

But whether a certain decision was ever pronounced, and, if it was, what were the reasons and principles upon which it was founded, are matters of fact, to be ascertained and authenticated, as all other facts are, by evidence.

The law of this country has been peculiarly watchful to prevent the approaches of falsehood; in the investigation and proof of the particular facts litigated between contending parties. For this purpose

pose many rules have been established relative to the competency or admissibility of evidence, of all which the ultimate object is, to guard the avenues of belief, and to secure the minds of those who are to determine, from imposition and mistake.

‘ It would be natural to expect a caution still more rigid with regard to the evidence of judicial proceedings and decisions. Whether a particular act was done, or contract entered into, by a party to a cause, or not, can only affect him and his opponent, or, at most, those who become their representatives; and should that be pronounced to have happened which in truth never did, third persons would not be injured. But whether a judgment alledged to have been delivered, was really delivered, and upon the alledged reasons, may affect all persons who are, or shall be, in circumstances similar to those of the parties to that cause. Yet it has some how or other happened that little or no care has been taken, nor any provisions made, to render the evidence of judicial proceedings certain and authentic.

‘ The records of the Courts are, indeed, framed in such a manner as to constitute indisputable documents of such parts of the proceedings as are comprised in them, but it is easy to shew that this goes but a very little way.

‘ In the first place, the authority of a decision for obvious reasons, is held to be next to nothing if it passes *sub silentio*, without argument at the bar, or by the Court; and it is impossible from the record of a judgment to discover whether the case was solemnly decided or not. Records, therefore even when they contain a sufficient state of the case, do not afford complete evidence of what is requisite to the future authority of the decision.

‘ But, in the second place, it is well known in how few instances the material parts of the state of the case can be gathered from the record. According to the modern usage, by far the greater number of the important questions agitated in the courts of law come before them upon motions for new trials, cases reserved, or summary applications of different sorts. In none of these instances does the record furnish the evidence even of the facts; for which in such cases, there is no other repository, nor for the arguments and reasoning of the Council and the Court in any case but the collections made by Reporters*. On their fidelity and accuracy, therefore, the evidence of a very great part of the law of England, almost entirely depends.

‘ The most ancient compilations of this sort were the work of persons specially appointed for the purpose. In what particular manner they exercised their function, how far the Courts superintended, or the Judges assisted or revised their labours, no where appears; and indeed almost every thing relating to them is involved in so much obscurity, that I believe their very names are totally unknown.

‘ It is probable, however, that the cotemporary Judges and those

* At an early period of our constitution the reasons of the judgment were set forth in the record, but that practice has been long disused.

who immediately followed them, had satisfactory reasons for confiding in the accuracy of those Reporters, since their writings called the *Year Books*, have always possessed a degree of traditional weight and authority superior to what is allowed to any subsequent reports.

‘ This, indeed is in some measure owing to the circumstances of their priority in point of time, exclusive of any consideration of peculiar authenticity or excellence, the decisions contained in them forming the basis of that large superstructure of successive determinations which now fills the library of an English lawyer.

‘ The special office of Reporter was discontinued so long ago as the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. and the history of the judicial proceedings in Westminster Hall, from that time till now, would have been lost in oblivion, if it had not been for the voluntary industry of succeeding reporters.

‘ The example was first set by some of the ablest Judges and Lawyers of the 16th century, who finding that official accounts were no longer taken of what passed in the Courts of Justice, were stimulated by a commendable zeal for that science of which they were distinguished ornaments, to commit to writing, for the use of posterity, the history of the most important decisions which took place within their practice or observation.

‘ Those eminent persons have had a numerous train of followers, of different descriptions, who, with unequal merit and various success, have continued down to the present times a pretty regular series of decided cases.

‘ In the reign of James I. Lord Chancellor Bacon procured the revival of the ancient office of Reporter, but it was soon dropped again, and does not seem while it continued to have been productive of the advantages expected from it. I know of no reports attributed to the persons then nominated to the office except those printed in the name of Serjeant Hetley, who, as we are told in the title page, was “ appointed by the King and Judges for one of the Reporters of the Law. Whether it was he or the Lord Keeper Littleton who was really the author of those reports (many of them being exact duplicates of those ascribed to Littleton) they are far from bearing any marks of peculiar skill, information or authenticity.

‘ Soon after the restoration an act of parliament having prohibited the printing of law books without the licence of the Lord Chancellor, the two Chief Justices and the Chief Baron, it became the practice to prefix such a licence to all reports published after that period, in which it was usual for the rest of the Judges to concur, and to add to the imprimatur a testimonial of the great judgment and learning of the author. The act was renewed from time to time, but finally expired in the reign of King William. But the same form of licence and testimonial continued in use till not many years ago; when, as the one had become unnecessary, and the other was only a general commendation of the writer, and no voucher for the merit of the work, the Judges, I believe, came to a resolution not to grant them any longer; and, accordingly, the more recent reports have appeared without them.’

The analogous cases, with other illustrations and remarks which Mr. Douglas has thrown in, by way of notes, we con-

conceive to be most useful variations from the general system of reporters ; as they serve to throw a satisfactory light on the precedents and principles upon which the arguments of the Counsel, and the judgments of the Court, are built. As the mode in general which he has pursued in his reports, has, at the same time, in other respects, considerable shades of distinction from those who have gone before him in the same line, we shall submit to our Readers a part (our limits not admitting the whole) of the learned Author's reasons for the preference he has given to the plan and arrangement which he has adopted.

' In considering what is the best method of reporting I found that different writers had proceeded upon plans widely different from one another.

' Some have prefixed, to all the leading cases, a full copy of the pleadings, thereby rendering their work at the same time a book of entries and of reports. It was once my intention to have done so, but I was dissuaded from it by much better opinions than my own.

' Some have not only stated the facts at great length, but have given the arguments of Counsel almost as diffusely as they were delivered at the bar, distinguishing the speeches of the different advocates on the same side, separately, under the names of each.

' Others, on the contrary, have only given a very abridged state of the case, together with the mere point decided, omitting not only all the arguments at the bar, but also most of the reasonings of the Court.

' Each of these two methods has its partizans, and each has its peculiar advantages and disadvantages.

' The first is more instructive for the younger part of the profession ; it exhibits a more complete picture of the case, and does more justice to the learning and ingenuity of the several advocates.

' But, on the other hand its prolixity fatigues the attention, it abounds with repetitions, and often disgusts the experienced lawyer, by a detail of elementary principles, trivial arguments, and hackneyed authorities.

' I have endeavoured to steer a middle course between these two extremes.

' 1. I have been particularly attentive to state whatever was material in the pleadings or evidence ; and sometimes where I was afraid of omitting what might be deemed essential, I have set forth verbatim, a case, a plea, or a special verdict.

' 2. I have thrown together into one discourse, the arguments which were used by all the different Counsel who spoke on the same side, digesting them in the order which seemed to me to give them greatest effect. In following this plan, as I have been often obliged to cloath the thoughts of others in language of my own, so I have been rather solicitous to preserve what appeared weighty and important in point of reasoning and authority, than anxious to retain every thing that was said. But I have taken care to omit no cited cases which I have found upon examination to be materially applicable to the point in question.

‘ 3. The judgments of the Court I could have wished to give in the words in which they were delivered. But this I often found to be impracticable, as I neither write short hand, nor very quickly. Memory however, while the case was recent, supplied, at home, many of the chasms which I had left in Court; and by comparing, and as it were confronting, a variety of notes taken by others, with my own, I was frequently enabled to recall, and insert in my Report, material passages which I should otherwise have lost. Thus I have profited in several respects by the liberal communications and concurrent labours of others of the profession, some of them persons of the first eminence at the bar. I acknowledge the assistance I have received from them with satisfaction and pride. If this book should meet with any degree of approbation, they are fairly entitled to a great share of it; and I should with pleasure declare that some of my friends ought, almost as much as myself, to be considered as the authors, were it not that I might thereby seem desirous to involve them in my responsibility for its imperfections.

‘ 4. I have carefully consulted the original authors for all the cases cited, and have bestowed all possible attention to see the names and references correctly printed.

‘ 5. To avoid unnecessary repetitions, I have omitted the frequent conclusions *per cur. unanimiter, unanimously, &c.* and therefore I take this opportunity of mentioning, that the unanimity of the Court is to be understood in every case where I have not expressly stated a difference of opinion.

‘ 6. It is usual with some reporters to give an account of different stages of the same cause, or of arguments in the same case but delivered at different times in different parts of their reports, according to strict chronological order. This seems to me to give them too much the appearance of being the mere transcript of their note books. I have therefore thought it more advisable to bring every thing respecting the same case into one point of view, by stating the whole together and inserting it on the day on which the case was ultimately disposed of, distinguishing however the different stages of the cause and the particular dates of each.’

We forbear to insert any of the cases quoted in this volume, either in the whole or in the abstract; because most of these which are of principal importance are of considerable length. To give any of them therefore a place verbatim would neither suit our plan, nor the instruction and amusement of our general Readers: whilst an abstract might neither do justice to the learned Reporter, nor to the judgment of the Court; a proper idea of which can only with certainty be collected from a combination of the various circumstances of the case, with the exposition of the law, as applicable to the whole: and this a slight deviation or omission might place perhaps in an improper point of view. For satisfaction on this ground therefore we must refer the Reader to the work itself.

ART. IV. *An History of the Corruptions of Christianity*. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. boards. Johnson.

THE Author of this elaborate work has of late years very much distinguished himself among a society of religionists, who arrogate to themselves the denomination of *rational Dissenters*. It is not our business to enter into a critical examination of those discriminating particulars which constitute their religious character, and from which they assume this pompous title. We would only whisper in their ears, that bigotry is just as repugnant to the genius of liberal and manly thinking in connection with the prepossessions of a *Priestley* as with those of a *Calvin*. On these principles no man is responsible for any thing beyond his own convictions. That error only is blameable which originates in a bad intention. Whoever is honest and indefatigable in searching after truth, whatever his opinions are, is entitled to respect. His opponents may charge his ideas of Christ for instance with idolatry, not less rashly at least than he does theirs with blasphemy.

On some minds the love of novelty, the pride of distinction, and a contempt of vulgar credulity, may operate as forcibly and effectually as the strongest persuasion. What though a certain constitutional timidity, or the early and inveterate prejudices of a narrow education, should not allow others to be thus daring and sceptical, is it decent in the former to affect a latitude of thinking among themselves which they would deny to the latter? The most liberal disquisition on every object of human curiosity ought undoubtedly to be encouraged, but surely there is some difference between an openness to conviction from every quarter, and a sovereign contempt for every one's opinion but that of our own party. And it is seldom that fervour of zeal is either in proportion to the orthodoxy or importance of its object.

It were greatly to be wished, as an elegant historian has well expressed it, that all matters of religious opinion were "left unfettered like philosophy and science." The best light perhaps in which attacks on the prevailing sentiments of others can be viewed, is *doing evil that good may follow*. The human mind is not to be dislodged from entrenchments thus long and assiduously possessed without pain. We naturally abate much of our own prejudices, to those, who assert their convictions with modesty and diffidence. The first maxim in the great art of persuasion is to please; and the Doctor would certainly have succeeded better, had he begun by making himself master of the heart. In all his researches, his opponents are constantly treated as persons of a low education, or inferior intellects, or narrow hearts, or as basely attach-

ed by motives of interest, to prefer that system to the true which they know to be false. This in our apprehension at least, is not the most probable way of making proselytes. Pride and meanness are never so conspicuously united as in the supercilious demagogues of contending sectaries. There is a soreness inseparable from little minds, which generally makes them shrink at the slightest touch. And we may always judge of candour and liberality by this infallible mark, that contradiction produces not petulance but recollection. We deem it impossible to peruse these volumes attentively, without having frequent occasion to make this remark.

The work before us, notwithstanding the subject is so curious, so various, and so interesting, is greatly deficient in point of taste and animation. Such a sameness of manner and triteness of remark run through all the articles of which the Doctor treats, as unavoidably fatigue and disgust the Reader. The happy art of keeping alive the attention, especially in a composition of considerable length, seems by no means the least difficult part of the Writer's business, but is shamefully neglected by this Author. His general arrangement is made with judgment; but he fills up the more minute particulars which constitute his plan, without either taste or accuracy. His deductions are crowded with trifling facts, which if not altogether foreign to his leading objects, seem at least to affect them but slightly. A number of instances to this purpose may be produced. He wanders quite from his subject page 66, vol. I. In section 9th, part I. most of the quotations from *Anstis* and *P. Lombard*, as well as those from *Anselm*, might have been spared. His Reader's patience is severely tried with a vast load of superfluous matter in the three last sections of part II. Indeed one sixth of the quotations almost throughout the work, seems abundantly sufficient for every object he has in view.

The Doctor's diction, like that of all his other writings, is in general plain and unaffected, though it might with no great pains have been much improved not only in strength and elegance, but frequently also in clearness and precision. What we are most surprised to observe is, sometimes an awkward negligence of style, which would be unpardonable even in Writers of an inferior description. We instance in the distinctive particle *but*, which on various occasions is made to begin several sentences in succession. This is one of those petty blunders, against which the Author is seldom on his guard, but which has always a most ridiculous effect.

From one who has treated so largely and fully concerning oratory, we should naturally expect frequent addresses to the
fancy

fancy and affections. There is much reason to regret that he has been at so little pains to relieve the mind occasionally from the dull fatigue of a long uninteresting narrative, by allusions and figures, which at times he can touch with peculiar delicacy. We have particularly in our eye the dedication to his friend and co-adjutor the Reverend *Theophilus Lindsey*, which notwithstanding a few inaccuracies at the beginning, is a very beautiful piece of composition, superior perhaps to any after part or passage in the work. His address to the celebrated Author of the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, is also masterly and striking. Here he seems to rise above himself! conscious of the justice and the strength, he boldly stands forth the champion of truth, and gives a kind of literary challenge to the brightest genius of the age. *Freethinkers* would do well to give the following passage a very serious perusal.

‘With many of them (the philosophical part of the world) Christianity is now rejected; but do they on that account seem disposed to adopt any other mode of religion, or any other system of mythology in its place. And would not such men as *Mr. Hume* or *Helvetius* among the dead, and *Mr. Gibbon* himself among the living, examine with scrupulous exactness the pretensions of any system of divine revelation, especially before he would regulate his life by it, and go to the stake for it. And yet philosophers of antiquity, men of as good understanding as *Mr. Gibbon*, and who no doubt, loved life and the pleasures and advantages of it, as much as he does, embraced Christianity, and died for it.’

The Doctor supposing the labours of all his rational brethren with his own, finally triumphant, puts the following case, which even the sceptical *Hume*, had he lived, would not have treated with a sneer.

‘Let any other religion, says the Doctor, be named that ever was so much corrupted, and that recovered itself from such corruption, and continued to be professed with unquestionable zeal by men of reflection and understanding, and I shall look upon it with respect, and not reject it without a very particular examination. The revival of a zeal for the religion of Greece and Rome under Julian is not to be compared with the attachment to Christianity by inquisitive and learned men in the present age. Let literature and science flourish but one century in Asia, and what would be the state of Mahometanism, the religion of the Hindoos, or that of the Tartars subject to the Grand Lama! I should rejoice to hear of such a challenge as I give *Mr. Gibbon* being sent from a Mahometan Musti to the Christian world.’

We cannot however speak of the considerations which the Doctor submits to Bishop Hurd, in the same terms of approbation. This in our opinion is an indecent attack upon a most respectable writer, whose great and well cultivated talents are engaged in the laudable design of healing dissension,

tion, and directing the current of vulgar and received convictions, in the channel of virtue and order; a design which every wise and good citizen must certainly approve. We are sincerely concerned to observe a very obvious want of candour, in almost every consideration addressed by the Doctor to this learned and elegant prelate. People are to be led, not driven into religious opinions, and were his propositions to be implicitly and unexceptionably adopted, we have reason to apprehend the issue of such a shock to their ideas would be either a total neglect and contempt of religion, or what is worse, perhaps the increase of fanaticism and superstition: consequently the vulgar would fall into the power of every fool or knave, who might have an interest in practising on their credulity. In spite of all the Doctor has said, we still cannot help thinking, that without establishments of some kind, the utmost disorder would ensue, and the cause of virtue and truth exceedingly suffer. Why does he not acknowledge, for he cannot have forgotten, that the seeds of all the corruptions of which he complains, were long sown and even deeply rooted before the Emperors became Christians?

Doctor Priestley very properly begins his history with the doctrine of the Trinity. This is the great bone of contention between the Socinians and the rest of the Christian world, on which every other difference of opinion hinges, and which if it be a corruption, is certainly a most extraordinary, as well as a most detestable one, and fraught with a thousand dangerous consequences. It must be allowed even by the Trinitarians themselves, that it has been the grand cause of division and animosity in every age of the Church; and that it has often given birth to the most extravagant, as well as to the most whimsical and absurd practices. Could such a doctrine then be fairly disproved, Christianity would immediately and infallibly become a plainer system, and much less liable to the objections of Deists, Jews, Mahometans, and Heathens. For this purpose nothing more seems necessary than to shew that the first Christians in general believed the simple humanity of Christ, and that the truth was gradually corrupted by introducing a mixture, first of the Oriental, and afterwards of the Platonic philosophy. This point our Author has laboured with great industry and acuteness. Most of his arguments, however, we think, are far from being conclusive. What positive proof has he been able to produce, that the Jewish Church was originally and purely unitarian? How can we be assured that they all went by the common name of the Ebionites and Nazarenes? What can be drawn from the omission of Hegesippus, in favour of the Doctor's hypothesis, since we have only a few inconsiderable

able fragments of his writings, and are altogether ignorant of his sentiments concerning the nature and person of Christ?

The account of our Saviour's miraculous conception, of the striking circumstances of his death and resurrection, his suddenly appearing and disappearing after it, and his visible ascension into Heaven; the language of this illustrious person concerning himself, and especially of his Apostles who knew him intimately and familiarly, lead strongly to the belief of something in him more than simple humanity. St. Paul in writing to the Collossians, and in most of his other writings, ascribes to the person and offices of Christ qualities which never met, at least in any other man. The epistle to the Hebrews, whoever be the writer, is certainly of apostolical antiquity, and the production of a Jew. And this epistle presents us with ideas of Jesus Christ peculiarly exalted and sublime. It is a composition which no Jewish Christian, of the Doctor's sentiments at least, could sincerely relish.

The advocates for the simple manhood of Christ, are not aware of the dilemma to which they are reduced by this doctrine. If they admit not the miraculous conception, how do they account for its being so distinctly and circumstantially recorded by St. Matthew and St. Luke, as well as believed by many of the Jewish Church. On the other hand, if this wonderful fact be admitted, may we not ask them how he can be merely a man, who was conceived by the power of the Holy Ghost overshadowing a virgin, and who is therefore stiled the Son of the Highest, and the only begotten of the Father?

Supposing the Author of Christianity properly and simply man, as we are, why was he conceived in such an extraordinary manner, and why distinguished by such an assemblage of extraordinary titles as he bears in every part of the sacred writings? Was it necessary that this man should be produced without a father, or by some mysterious and supernatural influence, in order to his being divinely commissioned, as other men the patriarchs and prophets had been before him? Had the various particulars of his history, and the discourses of his apostles given no countenance to the notion of his divinity, how came the *Gnostics* immediately to be so filled with this idea, as even in the days of the apostles to deny his humanity?

The Valentinians we are told had their logos as well as the Platonists, and the beginning of St. John's gospel is supposed to be directed against them; but let any unprejudiced person read that exordium and say, whether it has not more

more the appearance of being written with a view to establish the logos of Plato, or the divinity of Christ, than to overturn or confute that of the *Gnostics*. The last at least could not have been the Apostle's intention, otherwise it was impossible for him to have found a combination of words more hostile to his purpose, or better adapted for asserting the very doctrine he wished to explode.

In his account of baptism, Doctor Priestley appears not very consistent with himself. In page 67th, vol. II. we find his idea of the use and intent of this well known rite. "Its original meaning, he says, seems to have been a solemn declaration of a man's being a Christian, and of his resolution to live as becomes one; and very far was it from being imagined, that there was any peculiar virtue in the rite itself. It was considered as laying a man under obligations to a virtuous and a holy life, as the profession of Christianity necessarily does, but not as of itself making any person holy."

If this be the proper idea of baptism, the application of it to infants is a very great absurdity, and ought to have been marked by the Doctor among the corruptions of Christianity. A corruption too it would appear of a very dangerous nature, and which soon led to a most detestible superstition. Yet we find the Doctor patronizing baptism so warmly, as to hunt after the most far fetched arguments in its favour. That especially from the *patria potestas*, except the merest assertions pass for demonstration, is of this sort. "We are not able, says he, to trace the origin of infant baptism, and therefore are necessarily carried back to the age of the apostles for it." The meaning of this argument, if it has any, is, that because we cannot trace the origin of this rite or custom, it must have been the uniform practice of the church from the beginning. But the Doctor tells us, "that in the very next age to that of the apostles, he finds *baptism* and regeneration used as synonymous terms, and that hence proceeded a most capital mistake concerning its nature." Now this is so obvious a corruption of the Doctor's *original baptism*, that we must suppose he would have traced its origin had it been at all practicable. But no such thing has been done; nor, we believe, can be done. It follows consequently by his mode of reasoning, that *baptism* and *regeneration* were always used by the apostles to denote the same thing, and that there is a somewhat in the rite itself to which the grace of pardon is annexed. Neither has the argument drawn from the controversy between Austin and Pelagius much weight, when we consider the time in which it was started, but especially as Pelagius himself allowed the propriety of infant baptism, and only denied its absolute or indispensable necessity in all cases whatever; and above all,

as Pelagius was chiefly concerned to shew, that baptism and regeneration are two things, and it does not appear that he was able to trace the origin of the contrary opinion.

The Doctor is sometimes guilty of repeating the same facts and reasonings without any necessity. We instance in page 68, vol. II. where he says, it was customary in premature times to baptize persons at the point of death, and very justly infers that the ceremony could not well, in such cases at least, be performed by immersion. And in page 82 of the same volume where the same fact is stated, and the same inference made. This argument, *en passant*, does by no means extend so far as the Doctor would have it: nor goes, as he meant it should, to prove the propriety of sprinkling in all cases, even where dipping could be attended with no dangerous or disagreeable consequences. Extraordinary cases admit of extraordinary provisions, and extreme weakness, or the near approach of death, will be allowed to warrant some deviation from the common and established practice. But does it therefore follow that in ordinary cases, where no danger of health or life were apprehended, a mode should be adopted and justified, which has no countenance from the example of Christ and his apostles? Not that we conceive the difference between dipping and sprinkling of any consequence whatever. We only mention this, as one of the various instances which might be given, of the Author's erroneous mode of arguing from particular facts.

We might blame Doctor Priestley in the present very copious publication, for omissions as well as superfluities. Some Readers will doubtless deem it a capital one, that in an attempt to account for the corruptions of Christianity, none at all is given of the principles upon which the Quakers reject both baptism and the Lord's supper. Doctor Priestley was bound by his plan to pay a very serious attention to this curious and singular circumstance. He discharges this obligation, however, in these few words, "the Quakers make no use either of this rite or the Lord's supper." We must think he might have vouchsafed a pretty full and distinct view of the opinions in general, by which this denomination of Christians is distinguished; especially as their peculiarities are so very striking, as the sect *has increased, is increasing, and probably ought not be diminished*; and as it is a native of this country, and still retains in some degree the simplicity of its original. But though it is a subject which comes frequently in his way, he seems not a little studious to avoid it.

In short, almost every part of this polemical work affords equal scope for sarcasm and remark; but the above mention-

ed instances are sufficient to shew the pragmatic disposition of the Writer, and his desultory mode of composition.

ART. V. *Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire, of the Morattoes, and of the English Concerns in Indostan, from the year 1659. Small 8vo. 5s. Nourse.*

INTIMATELY connected as Great Britain now is, and, we hope, long must be, with Indostan, every circumstance which may throw light on the history and manners of that Great empire, must be peculiarly interesting to this country. Few parts of the globe have been the theatre of more extraordinary revolutions than the extensive and fertile regions bounded by the Indus and the Ganges, and yet few portions of history remain to this hour, more darkly involved in obscurity and doubt. Every encouragement and commendation is due therefore to those, who favour the world with such documents, as may lead in time to a connected chain of authentic materials for future history.

The period to which this volume relates, is about thirty years, from the commencement of the reign of Aurengzebe in 1659 to the year 1689, and forms the first section of a work which the Author informs us he means to continue.

The people called Morattoes have, for a considerable time, been one of the most powerful of the Indian nations; and have long been peculiarly formidable from their numbers, their spirit, and their active system of predatory war, which, by the rapidity of their motions, subjects their enemies to attacks they find difficult to prevent or to revenge; the hand that smites disappearing almost as soon as seen. Though the name of this singular nation (which is now formed into a species of aristocratical republic) has been long familiar to our ears, their history is still very imperfectly known. The first steps therefore, by which the intrepid, active, and sagacious founder of their empire, rose to sovereignty, and extended his dominions, must be considerable objects of historical curiosity and political interest.

This extraordinary man, whose name was Sevagi, drew his lineage from the Rajah's of Chitore, who boast their descent from Porus; and are esteemed the most ancient establishment of Hindoo Princes, and the noblest of the Rajpoot tribes.

Sevagi's movements towards independence and empire commenced about the year 1660, and are related by our Author in part as follows:

'The blow he meditated was against Surat. It is said he went in to the city in disguise, and remained in it three days, picking up
intelli-

intelligence, and marking the opulent houses. To conceal his intentions, he formed two camps, one before Chaul, the other before Bassain, as if his designs were in those quarters. He then took 4000 horse from his camp at Bassain, ordering the rest to continue the same watches, and music, as if their numbers were not diminished, and himself not absent. He led his party through unfrequented tracts, which he had himself examined; and appeared in sight of Surat before his approach was known. The city at this time had only one wall, and that of earth; nor were the gates of any strength. The governor of the town took refuge within the castle, and his example was followed by all who could gain admittance. From this terror no resistance was made in the town, but the castle fired continually after Sevagi had entered, which he disregarded; but, apprehensive of troops from Ahmedabad, remained only three days in the town. The booty he collected in treasure, jewels, and precious commodities, was estimated at a million sterling; which is not improbable, for he knew where to seek and demand them; and the annual importations of gold and silver from the gulphs of Arabia and Persia, besides what came directly from Europe, amounted at this time to 50,00,000 of rupees, and two families in the town were the richest mercantile houses in the world; there were many others of great wealth. The English and Dutch factories stood on their defence, but Sevagi gave them no molestation. This happened in January 1664.

Besides the abundance of its commerce, Surat was in high renown, as being the port through which the Mogul's subjects made the pilgrimage to Mecca, of which, in the archives of the empire, it was called the port. Aurengzebe felt the disgrace, as well as the detriment of the insult; and foresaw it might be repeated, until the city were better fortified, which required time; unless Sevagi were coerced by the strongest necessity of self defence. The whole army of the Decan invaded his territory: the conduct of the war was committed to Jysing, the Rajah of Abnir; who had a secret instruction to entice Sevagi to Delhi, but preferred the nobler exercise of the sword, until the active and obstinate resistance of Sevagi produced a solemn assurance of safety from Aurengzebe himself; on which he set out for Delhi, accompanied by a decent retinue, and his eldest son. He had formed several excellent officers, worthy of trust, and ordered them to keep up his whole force, under the usual strictness, and ready to move at his call; but forbade them to trust any letters from himself, unless confirmed by the verbal messages of particular persons whom he took with him, in appearance as menial servants. He was received by Aurengzebe with much courtesy; which continued, until the ladies of the seraglio, incited by the wife of Chacst Khan, in revenge for the death of her son, and the disgrace of her husband, solicited Aurengzebe, not unwilling, to destroy him. But the high Omrahs said they had no other security for their own lives, than the word of the King; and that the Hindoo Rajahs would revolt at such a breach of faith to one of their own condition. Sevagi, at the public audience, upbraided Aurengzebe with the intention, and said that he thought Chacst Khan and Surat had taught him better the value of such a servant; then drew his dagger to stab himself, but his arm was stopped. Aurengzebe conde-

condescended to soothe him, repeated his first assurance of safety, and requested his service in the expedition he was preparing against Candahar. Sevagi replied, he could command no troops but his own, and was permitted to send for them. Nevertheless his dwelling and all his doings were narrowly watched. He sent his letters by his trusty messengers, who carried orders very different from the letters. His army moved into Guzerat, on the road to Delhi, and small parties, too small to create suspicion, were sent forward, one beyond another, with the fleetest horses. When the foremost reached its station, Sevagi and his son were carried out of their dwelling at night in covered baskets, such as fruit and repasts are sent in from persons of distinction to one another; and a boat, as for common passengers, was waiting at the extremity of the city. They passed the river unsuspected, when Sevagi giving the boat-man money, bid him go and tell Aurengzebe, that he had carried Sevagi and his son across the Jumna; then mounting with the first party, they set off at speed, and recrossed the river at a ford lower down; after which their track and stations were thro' an unfrequented circuit to the west of the great cities, and amongst the mountains. The son, who had not yet reached his growth, emulating his father, sunk, and died in the way, of fatigue; and the father, leaving attendants to perform the obsequies of his funeral pile, pushed on until he joined his army in Guzerat; which he turned with burning vengeance against the Mogul's lands, wheresoever they were not appeased by money, or opposed by strong situations. Surat, as the most scornful defiance, Sevagi reserved to himself. A new wall was begun, but far from finished; and the inhabitants, to prevent his troops from entering the city, as well as to remove them from the manufacturing villages around, capitulated with him in his camp, for a ransom; which he did not raise to excess, as he intended to come again for more. The Rajah Jyasing was again employed to oppose him, and, as before, with instructions to persuade his return to Delhi; to which Sevagi replied, that he did not think Aurengzebe such a fool, as to think him such a one, to trust himself a second time to the man who had once deceived him.

All accommodations being at an end, the Mogul troops belonging to the governments of Aurengabad and Ahmednagar, moved again to the hills of Concan, and passed the campaign at the foot of them, watchful to prevent the incursions of Sevagi into the plain country; but made few attempts on his strong holds within the mountains; nor were they solicitous to give protection to the territories on either side of them, belonging to the King of Viziapore, with whom they were at continual variance, on the account of disputed districts, or defaulting tributes. Their principal station was at the city of Jennesh, which lies under the impregnable fortress of the same name. Sevagi, who never preferred the fame to the utility of his exploits, determined to avoid all encounter with the Mogul troops, without certain advantage; to plunder in Viziapore, when most convenient or necessary; but to persevere without ceasing in reducing the country between the hills and the sea.

Every success howsoever extraneous, which increased his strength, was now considered by Aurengzebe, as effectual obstacles to his own schemes

schemes of conquest in the Decan : Nor was he affected with less resentment by the spoil of his own territory, in which the bands of Sevagi, descending suddenly from the mountains, committed rage, as it were at will ; eluding both resistance and pursuit. To reduce him by the sword was out of the question ; nor was the dagger more likely to succeed against a man, who had used it with so much subtlety and expertness ; and Aurengzebe concluding that he could only be taken in the toils of ambition, formed a plan, which, even if failing in the main end, would, like many others of his profound sagacity, operate to other intentions of his policy.

He appointed his son, Mahomed Mauzum (now become the eldest by the death of his brother in imprisonment) to the viceroyalty of the Decan, and gave him in secret conference the instruction of his conduct. The Prince marched from Delhi with a numerous and chosen army, and amongst the officers were several of whom Aurengzebe entertained suspicions. It is said that Sevagi, disguised like a peasant, waited his passage through a village near Brampore, and presented a plate of cream, which from its appearance, Mauzum ordered to be served at his meal ; within was a note inclosed in wax, written by Sevagi, declaring, that curiosity had led him to view the mighty prince, who now condescended to become his antagonist in the lists of fame ; expecting to acquire more from this contest than from all his former achievements. The gallantry of the defiance, if true, must have warned the prince, (had there not been proofs before) of the dangerous resources of his intricate intrepidity.'

As one of the best specimens of our Author's stile and manner, we shall here lay before our Readers the death and character of this great Prince.

' In this interval Sevagi was gone from Rairee, but no one knew whether ; a convoy of money to a great amount was coming to Aurengabad, of which, as of every thing concerning his enemy, he received early intelligence ; and taking his time, before his intentions could be suspected, issued with a detachment of his hardiest cavalry, remote from all the Mogul's stations ; and fell upon the convoy before his approach was known, within a few miles of Brampore ; where it would have been safe, until sent forward with stronger escort. He seized the whole, and brought it without interruption, and the same rapidity to Rairee. But the purchase was dearly earned ; for the excessive strain of fatigue, greater than any he had endured since his escape from Delhi, caused an inflammation in his breast, attended with spitting of blood : his disorder although increasing every day was kept secret within his palace at Rairee ; and if it had been published would not have been believed, since he had more than once sent abroad reports of his death, at the very time he was setting out on some signal excursion ; and at this very time his army towards Surat, which he probably intended to have joined, were acting with such rage and hostility, up to the walls, that the city imagined Sevagi himself was commanding in person ; and expected an assault with so much terror, that the English presidency sent off the treasure of their factory across the river, to the marine of Swally, where lay some of their ships ; and the governor

of

of the town redeemed his fears by a large contribution; whereupon Morah Pundit returned to Rairee to see his master die. On the 5th of April, 1680, and in the 52d year of his life, a funeral pile was administered with the same sacrifices as had been observed the year before to the obsequies of the Maha Rajah Sing, of Joudpore: attendants, animals, and wives, were burnt with his corpse.

The name of his family was Bonfolo which claiming their descent from antient princes of the Rajpoot nation, were exempted (we suppose in convenience to military exertions) from some of the stricter observances of the general religion; from which nevertheless he never deviated for the sake of indulgences; and affected the deepest reverence to his bramins, undertaking no expedition without their auspices; and was as punctual in his private devotions, as assiduous in the ceremonies of public worship: it should seem from conviction; but whether so or no, his practice gained the public respect: and as he delighted in every occasion of throwing defiance against Aurengzebe, he frequently stiled himself in his correspondence and manifestos the champion of the Hindoo gods against the sanguinary violator of their temples; which, with his own example, sharpened the antipathy of his troops against the Mogul's, whom they deemed it religious retaliation to destroy.

His private life was simple, even to parsimony; his manners void of insolence or ostentation; as a sovereign he was humane, and solicitous for the well being of his people, as soon as assured of their obedience; for he gathered them as we have seen by degrees.

Consisting against the Mogul, Viziapore, and Golcondah, the revenues of his own territories, all wrested from their dominions, were not sufficient to supply the means of maintaining effectual war against such rich and mighty powers; but his genius created the resources which nature had denied. The cavalry of the three Mahomedan states were always drawn from the northern countries and borders of India with especial regard to the strength and size, as well of the riders as their horses; whose pampered maintenance was of vast expence; but their shock was not to be resisted by any of the native cavalry to the south of Delhi, and all the conquests made by the Mahomedans in this lower region may be imputed to this unequal decision. Sevagi first discerned and provided the equivalent opposition, by establishing a cavalry, of which the requisites were agility and endurance of fatigue: many must have perished in the probation, but besides the supplies of purchase and capture, broods were raised from the most approved. The horse without a saddle was rode by a man without cloaths, whose constant weapon was a trusty sabre; footmen enured to the same travel, and bearing all kind of arms trooped with the horse: spare horses to bring off the booty, and relieve the wearied or wounded. All gathered their daily provisions as they passed. No pursuit could reach their march: in conflict their onset fell wheresoever they chose, and was relinquished even in the instant of charge. Whole districts were in flames before their approach was known, as a terror to others to redeem the ravage. Nor were they so wanton in bloodshed as reported by Afrigh; but gave no quarter to resistance or interruption: in the towns

towns they only sought the wealthy inhabitants to carry them off for future ransom. Such was their war of plunder. In regular campaigns, in which fortresses were to be reduced, they must have moved with the usual incumbrances; but Sevagi seems to have besieged none at an inconvenient distance from others of which he was in possession; excepting when he invaded the Carnatic, of which we have acquired no circumstances.

‘We are not apprised in what manner he satisfied and paid his soldiery and their officers; but believe with portions of the cumbersome plunder, grain, land, honour, privileges, exemptions, and very little ready money, for the continual influx of treasure from his predatory excursions raised the fame of the caves of Rairee to a proverbial symbol of eastern wealth, as a repository from which nothing returned. Nevertheless nothing necessary to the success of his operations was stinted, and what capture did not furnish was procured by purchase. He spared no cost to obtain intelligence of all the motions and intentions of his enemy, and even of minutest import; for his detachments always knew the opulent houses of the towns they attacked, and often the very cell in which the treasure they sought was buried; he was still more profuse in corrupting the generals with whom he contended; the Mogul’s governors of Surat, his Subah in the Decan, and even Sultan Mauzum, his son, and the heir of his empire, had more than once accepted the gold of connivance from Sevagi.

‘The same principles of frugality and expence were observed in the municipal disbursements of his government: for superior himself to magnificence, none of his officers were led to expect more than competence: but nothing was spared which might contribute to the internal defence of his country. Regular fortifications, well armed and garrisoned, barred the open approaches; every pass was commanded by forts, and, in the closer defiles, every steep and overhanging rock was occupied as a station to roll down great masses of stone, which made their way to the bottom, and became the most effectual annoyance to the labouring march of cavalry, elephants and carriages. It is said that he left 350 of these posts in the Concan alone.

‘Sevagi possessed all the qualities of command: every influence howsoever latent was combined in his schemes, which generally comprehended the option of more than one success; so that his intention could rarely be ascertained, and when accomplished, did not discover the extent of its advantages, until developed by subsequent acquisitions. In personal activity he exceeded all generals of whom there is record; for no partizan appropriated to services of detachment alone, ever traversed as much ground, as he at the head of armies. He met every emergency of peril, howsoever sudden and extreme with instant discernment, and unshaken fortitude; the ablest of his officers acquiesced to the eminent superiority of his genius; and the boast of the soldier was to have seen Sevagi charging sword in hand.

‘Thus respected, as the guardian of the nation he had formed, he moved every where amongst them with unsuspecting security, and often alone; whilst his wiles were the continual terror of the princes with whom he was at enmity, even in the midst of their citadels and

armies. Whensoever we shall obtain a history of his life written in his own country, he will doubtless appear to have possessed the highest resources of stratagem, joined to undaunted courage; which, although equal to the encounter of any danger, always preferred to surmount it by circumvention; which, if impracticable, no arm exceeded his in open daring. Gallantry must lament that it should once have been stained by the blood of assassination.*

Sevagi was succeeded by his eldest son Sambagee, who possessed all the courage and activity of his father, but little of his judgment or penetration. We shall conclude our extracts from this work with the following account of his death.

Aurengzebe continued throughout this year in the city of Vizisapore, superintending with the utmost attention the war against Sambagi. The numbers and artillery of the Mogul's army recovered all the towns and forts in the open country, which Sambagi had reduced whilst they were employed against Golcondah; but his holds on hills and mountains were inexpugnable; and all that could be done against them was to station troops in such of the neighbouring situations as might best repress the garrisons above from descending to plunder in the plain, who, from their back country and the gauts were supplied, when necessary, by secreted parties, with provisions. Even Pannala, which Sambagi made his own retreat and capital during this war, was continually invested, but with no prospect of surrender at the end of the year. When Aurengzebe convinced of the improbability of getting Sambagi into his power by direct open hostility, resorted to other means.

That propensity to women, which the wisdom of his father Sevagi seems to have early foreseen as the germ of Sambagi's destruction, had increased with his manhood and power. It wasted not his time in the allurements of dalliance, but his variety was insatiable, and every beauty he heard of became the object of his acquisition, in despite of all parental and religious resentment. Cablis Caun, as mentioned before, was the procurer of his pleasures, and from this connexion gained some share of his confidence in the affairs of his government, without any political ability, and a considerable command in the army, with very little courage. He seems by his name and manners to have been a Mahomedan. Aurengzebe tried, and found no difficulty in tampering and succeeding with such a character, but was obliged to leave the mode to his own judgment, who consulting above all other considerations his own security, risked no attempt on Sambagi's life by poison or assassination, but waited for some less dangerous means of treachery, which occurred in the month of June.

It is well known that the marriages of the Hindoos are contracted by the parents during the earliest infancy of the children, who from that time are kept separate in their own families, until the virgin wife arrives at the real age of nubility, when she is sent home with much pomp to the house of her husband. This procession is generally made in the night, accompanied by many lights, and is held

held sacred from all interruption. A young Hindoo of distinction, and much beauty, was to be carried to her husband; and the representation of Cablis Caun, who pretended to have seen her, easily persuaded Sambagi to seize her. He put himself at the head of a small Squadron of horse; but for fear of accidents in this time of hostility, Cablis Caun was to follow at a distance with a much larger body. We are ignorant from which of his strong holds this intemperate excursion was made; but believe from Pannelu, of which the investment might have been raised by the advice of Cablis Caun. The onset of Sambagi had scarcely dispersed the procession, when his party was attacked by a detachment of Mogul cavalry, who, apprized of his person, refrained from his life, and seized him at the *unresisted risque of his sword*. They then proceeded against the body with Cablis Caun, who pretended resistance only to be taken.

Sambagi appeared before Aurengzebe with an undaunted brow; who reproached Cablis Caun not with his treachery, but the encouragement which his prostituted ministry had given to vices which at length had led his sovereign to ruin; and ordered him to instant death. To Sambagi he proffered life and rank in his service, if he would turn Mahomedan, who answered by an invective against the prophet, and the laud of his own gods. On which he was dressed in the fantastic ornaments of a wandering Indian devotee, who beg in villages with a rattle and a cap with bells. In this garb he was tied, looking backwards, upon a camel, and led through the camp, calling on all the Rajpoots he saw to kill him, but none dared. After the procession his tongue was cut out, as the penalty of blaspheming Mahomed. In this forlorn condition Aurengzebe, by a message, again offered to preserve his life, if he would be converted, when he wrote, "Not if you would give me your daughter in marriage;" on which his execution was ordered, and performed by cutting out his heart, after which his limbs and body were separated, and altogether were thrown to dogs prepared to devour them. Manouchi says, that Aurengzebe beheld and enjoyed the spectacle, which is scarcely credible. Nevertheless, human nature wonders at his inflexible cruelty, as much as it admires the invincible courage of Sambagi; whose death produced not the expected effect of submission from any part of the Morattoo government, which it only animated the more to continue the war.

This volume (which is illustrated by a very correct map of Indostan from Cape Comorin in Lat. 8, to Lat 23 north) appears without a name; but, from some passages in the first and second pages, we are led to consider it as the production of the very correct and elegant historian of the "British Transactions in Indostan." We cannot however in any shape place it on a level with his former works. The style is unequal; often affectedly inflated, sometimes quaintly obscure; and there runs through the whole evident marks of carelessness and haste, which to us appear the more remarkable, as coming from the pen of a Writer hitherto distinguished for accuracy and refinement.

The following passages by way of specimen, we submit without commentary to our Readers.

' Nevertheless, not attacked they refrained from acting offensively, for the sword of their ancient valour had long cankered in its spoils.' p. 56. ' He fell upon the Mogul's camp, although consisting of 40,000 horse, and effected tenfold more rout than his own loss.' p. 65. ' Acbar was soon after surrounded in a situation capable of extreme defence; but from which, if properly watched, he could not escape; so that famine seemed the empire; against which Acbar was likewise provided.' p. 147. ' But the dignity of the throne forbade any overtures of peace to a resistance, which had even attempted the deposal, if not the life of the monarch.' p. 150. ' Until the assailants and defenders were brought to the brunt of standing fight on the same level.' p. 216.

We are not however certain that some of these passages which to us appear most exceptionable, may not, by the omission or transposition of words, be more justly imputed to the printer than to the Author; as the whole teems with palpable errors of the press: an observation which to the discredit of the printers of the present day, we have occasion to make in regard to modern books in general, which are turned out from the press, with a slovenly carelessness, which demands the severest reprehension.

Though we have pointed out however, as impartial men, what we consider as blemishes, yet we think the publication now under review, of considerable value; and we hope this celebrated writer will go on with a work, which has enough to recommend it, greatly to overbalance some slight imperfections; and which a very small degree of care may, for the future, make it as unnecessary as it is painful for us to animadvert upon.

ART. VI. *Enquiries concerning the Poor.* By John M'Farlan, D. D. one of the Ministers of Canongate, Edinburgh. 8vo. 5s. 3d. boards. Longman.

SINCE the first existence of poor laws to the present day, a train of growing evils has constantly attended them; which, though unforeseen, as it should seem; appears to spring from the laws themselves. By way of remedy various statutes have been from time to time enacted, and schemes without number offered to the legislature: yet, notwithstanding every effort, the parish poor has yearly increased, and beggars of every description swarm as much as ever. Individuals consider with astonishment and regret the unceasing rise of the tax with which they are loaded, and contemplate futurity with terror.

The benevolent Author of the work before us has therefore

fore the highest claim to our attention; as his proposed scheme, if carried into execution, seems to promise fair as a *palliative*, should its effects fall short of a *radical cure*. The intimate and extensive acquaintance he seems to have with every thing relative to his subject, unaccompanied by any dogmatic peremptoriness, together with the clear and complete view he gives us of matters in which the community is so highly interested, must recommend him still more strongly to the public.

His performance is divided into three enquiries. 1st, "Into the causes of poverty." 2dly, "Into the different methods hitherto employed to provide for the poor." And 3dly, "Into some more effectual methods of preventing the increase of beggars, and of providing for the poor." In the 1st enquiry the Author begins with the *natural causes of poverty*, viz. disease, misfortunes in life, infancy, old age, and weakness of understanding. He then proceeds to the *adventitious causes*, arising from an increased population. Here he endeavours to shew that an improved state of agriculture, manufactures and commerce, though friendly to population, is likewise productive of poverty: that, in such a state, there is a greater proportion of those who must be supplied from the common stock than in less industrious nations. Paupers, whose poverty has originated from either of these causes he thinks have an undoubted claim upon the public for subsistence. But the vices of mankind (his 3d cause) he informs us are by far the most fruitful source of poverty: and says very properly that want, springing from vice, as it has not the same claim upon the public with the species of poverty already mentioned, merits not the same compassion, nor relief. This description of paupers he has therefore called "undeserving poor." Their numbers he tells us, we are afraid with too much truth, are "increased by the *certain prospect* of a supply, "and by the ample provision *indiscriminately* afforded to "those in want.

'The impropriety, says the Doctor, of indiscriminate charity will more fully appear, if we consider the character of those vagrant impostors, with the bad consequences of supplying them. However unfit they may appear for the duties of life, yet they discover no small genius in their own trade. By their art they are able to impose on the most discerning; and, by their eloquence, to extract money even from those who had before determined to give them nothing. When they are sedulous and skilled in their business, they often gain more in one day than the most laborious tradesman can earn in a week. Besides street beggars, there are still greater numbers who do not so much affect the outward semblance of poverty, but apply, in a more concealed manner, by letters, or private

solicitations. These are so artfully drawn, and represent such scenes of secret misery, that, if we could credit the half of what is said, we must wonder how there could be so little compassion, and so much wretchedness, in a Christian land: But, if we should be at pains to enquire more narrowly into their circumstances and character, we shall find by far the greatest part of them living well, and, at the same time, the most slothful and the most worthless of the human race.

‘ If this undistinguished charity served only for the relief of one worthless person, it would be of little consequence. But, while it confirms one in the habit of begging, it encourages others to begin the same trade, and thus becomes no small discouragement to industry. Few would toil from morning to night for a scanty subsistence in a laborious occupation, if they could live much better by the easier occupation of begging.

‘ The certain provision made for the poor, by means of the public funds collected for them, may be assigned as another cause of the increase of the numbers of the poor. This method of supplying them is not attended with the same bad consequences as the former. It is seldom that they can receive more from the public than is sufficient for the necessities of life. Being distributed by persons who may, or at least ought to know, the general characters of such as apply, there is less danger of encouraging absolute sloth and idleness, while such as are deserving will be more probably preferred. But it is affirmed, that, by the manner in which the poor funds are commonly administered, an encouragement is actually given to idleness. When a large provision is made for the poor, on which they know they may depend, and this is bestowed indiscriminately, no distinction being made between deserving and undeserving poor, the chief restraint on sloth and profligacy is removed. Those who might have lived comfortably by their own industry are tempted to be idle by relying on such supply.’

This enquiry concludes with the “ partial, local and temporary causes of poverty.”

The 2d enquiry, “ Into the different methods (hitherto) “ employed to provide for the poor,” opens a very extensive prospect, where matters of the highest import to the interests of society are treated with equal knowledge and ability. The nature of our Review forbids us to follow the Author through the necessary minuteness of his investigation, but we shall endeavour to give the public a general idea of what is to be met with in this part of the work. It sets out with Dr. Burn’s summary of the English poor laws, and an abridgement of the Scotch acts of Parliament relative to the poor. These latter bear so strong a resemblance to the former, that had they ‘ been executed,’ says the Author, ‘ in the same manner, the burden in the northern would have been no less heavy in proportion than that now on the southern part of the nation—but the country in general hath been averse to a tax which, in England, is so much complained of,

of, and which so imperfectly answers the end.' This part of the work is more curious, as these acts of the Scotch legislature have not till now, as far as we recollect, come under the consideration of any of the writers on the poor laws. The Author then proceeds to enquire into the reasons why laws that appear, at first sight, so well calculated to answer the end proposed, should have proved so ineffectual: and this he attributes to three causes, to the inadequateness of the laws themselves, to those that are most adequate not being uniformly and strictly put in execution, and to the impossibility of wholly remedying the evil by any human law.

Having considered this question in general, he carries his investigation into the particular modes of provision for the poor which have hitherto taken place. His detail respecting poor-houses and poor-rates displays a thorough knowledge of the subject, and his reasoning on their advantages and disadvantages equal discernment, and strength of understanding. His chief objections to poor-houses or work-houses are that they are an expensive mode of providing for the wants of the poor, that, when managed in the most frugal manner, each individual costs the public more than individuals in the lower ranks of life actually do subsist upon with apparent content and comfort, that, according to the general run of management, this excess is prodigious, that they tend to increase the number of poor, that they are a scene of contention and vice, improper seminaries for the education of youth, and that they render the poor, who enter them with good morals, either dissolute, or miserable. To poor-rates he objects their being unfriendly to industry, that, by encouraging idleness, they encourage vice, that the tax is oppressive to the rich, without providing effectually for the poor, and that it is an unequal tax, and therefore a bad one. Accounts of the police in Holland, as far as it regards the poor, of different charitable foundations in Edinburgh, and elsewhere, of charity schools in Great Britain and Ireland, with a variety of miscellaneous and apposite matter close this second enquiry.

From this part of the work we shall make the following extract, where the question, "Whether poor children should receive a literary education or not," is considered.

'Without the labour of such, society could not subsist; the Prince would be left solitary in his palace, and the rich man would perish amidst the abundance of his wealth; yet there is no man who would choose a laborious state; nothing but necessity could compel him to unremitting toil and coarse fare, and nothing but habit from his earliest days could reconcile him to it. Had he ever known better things, or had he been accustomed in the beginning of life to ease and

good living, it would have been a cruel and insupportable change to return from that to a state of penury and hard labour.

‘ If, then, it be absolutely necessary that there should be a great proportion of mankind destined to drudgery, in the meanest occupations, who must sweat under heavy burdens, and yet be satisfied with a scanty morsel, it is surely an object of importance to render this state as supportable as we can make it. As nothing but early habit can render it tolerable, therefore to give to the meanest of the people an education beyond that station which Providence has assigned them, is doing them a real injury. This accustoms them to a more easy and comfortable manner of living than they have afterwards the probability of enjoying, which only serves to render their advanced years more unhappy; or it tempts them to aspire to a station beyond what they can ever reasonably hope to attain; the prospect of which makes them discontented with their humble sphere.

‘ The son of a day labourer has before his eyes the example of his father, who, by persevering industry, and hard labour, brings home what is barely sufficient to afford food and cloathing to his family. He entertains no idea of his having a title to a better station in life than his parents possessed. He sees he must submit to a like toil, or be reduced to the more despicable state of beggary or want; he, therefore, enters chearfully on his task, and is happy to find employment.

‘ We may pity the state of such, but we seldom hear them complain. Having never known better things, they are contented with their lot. Temperance and exercise renders a crust of bread and a cup of water more delicious to their taste, than the richest feast is to a pampered appetite. The fatigue of the day renders the sight of their cottage pleasant, and they lie down to a sound sleep without feeling the hardness of the board they rest on.’

‘ This manner of living, which habit has rendered familiar, is far from being so unhappy as many are inclined to think it. A person who has been accustomed to live delicately would soon faint beneath that toil, which to them is little more than a recreation. Instead of groaning, we hear them whistling and singing in the midst of their labour. They may enjoy few of the luxuries of life, and be ignorant of many pleasures which affluence affords. But they are also freed from many of those disquietudes, and uneasy passions, which vex the spirits of the great, and often render even their existence insupportable. If their industry affords them only the plainest food and cloathing, it is some compensation that they are perplexed with no other care. They are happily ignorant of the pangs of disappointed ambition, of mortified pride, and of humbled vanity. Their sleep is not disturbed by guilty fears, nor is their mind tortured by long laboured schemes, or hazardous designs. Their days and years slide gently on in simplicity and peace.

‘ Let us now suppose a child born to this station of life, taken from his father's cottage by a wealthy neighbour; that he is comfortably fed and cloathed until he is twelve years of age, without being put to any hard labour; that he receives knowledge and education far beyond what his parents possessed, or were ever able to afford him, and that he is then ordered to return to his father's ho-

vel, to coarse fare and to labour, of which he had hitherto no idea; can we say that such a seeming benefactor had done this person a real good service? Is he not, on the contrary, rendered miserable, or wholly unfit for that station, which otherwise would have become familiar and easy to him?

It may be replied, Why compel him to return to this servile state; why not let him rise to a better? If he cannot bear the sultry heat of the mid-day sun, or stand the beating rain and chilling cold, let him go to an easier occupation. Be it so: but who then is to undergo that labour which he should have performed, for which he was born, and which Providence at first assigned him? It must be either left undone, or others, born to better things, must submit to it. Thus, by a partial service done to him, a real injury is done to society, or a kind of injustice to some other individual.

We must refer the Reader to the book itself for the remainder of this investigation, where the Author we think decides most sensibly that, after being "taught to read," and "instructed in the principles of religion and morality," the education of this class of men should go no farther.

In the 3d and last enquiry, "Into some more effectual methods for preventing the increase of beggars, and of providing for the poor," a remedy is proposed for the evils complained of in the former part of the work. The Author however pretends not 'to remove every evil complained of relating to the management of the poor. While the vices, the follies and the weaknesses of mankind remain we must expect the continuance of some disorders and irregularities in society. It would be therefore a vain attempt to pretend either entirely to prevent idleness and beggary, or properly to supply every one deserving of our charity. In planning a reformation, all that can be hoped for is to prevent the growth of abuses, and to lessen the evils which are most notorious. This much at least seems in our power, and this much ought to be attempted.'

To bring about this reform, Dr. McFarlan does not think the repeal of the poor laws now subsisting, nor the authority of a new statute necessary. He is of opinion that it had been better for the community had they never been enacted; but now that we are accustomed to them, that they have as it were taken root, at once to tear them up he is apprehensive would produce many inconveniences, and great disorder. He wishes therefore, to try whether a well regulated police, and the utmost exertion in the execution of the laws now subsisting would not in a great measure remove the evils of which we now complain. We cannot follow the Author through the whole of his proposed reform, but shall present the public with his own "Summary view of the Plan."

It hath appeared (says he) from the first and second enquiries of this work, that the great number of poor, and the high amount of the
poor

poor rate, particularly in England, arises chiefly from not duly attending to the different characters and circumstances of those who apply for charity, and from indiscriminately granting a liberal supply to the idle and worthless; as readily as to the most deserving objects. By this injudicious distribution of the poor funds, an encouragement is actually given to idleness, and even to vice; the poor rate is increased, while many of those who have the best claim to our charity are neglected.

To remedy these evils, it is, in the preceding sections proposed,

I. To establish a more strict police, particularly in great towns, with a view to acquire a knowledge of the real characters and circumstances of those who already are, or who are likely to become objects of the public charity. I have endeavoured to show, that, even in the largest cities, this is far from being so difficult a task as many are inclined to think. The inattention of citizens to this duty, is that which makes it appear much more arduous than it really is.

II. I have endeavoured to show to whom the duty of managing and overseeing the poor naturally belongs. It has been observed, that if a proper plan of management was laid down, by which gentlemen might see it to be in their power to be essentially serviceable to themselves and to the public, there is reason to hope that persons properly qualified would not decline the duty, and that it would not be left to those of inferior characters, who, in soliciting for the office, have only some selfish lucrative object in view.

III. To lessen the trouble, and to assist the managers in the discharge of their duty, it is proposed that in towns an inspector, or in large cities two or more inspectors, should be appointed, whose business it shall be to visit the houses, and to inform themselves of the characters and circumstances of the poor and lowest class of people, of which they shall make a faithful report to the managers, who may thereby be enabled, not only to grant a suitable allowance to such as apply to them, but to prosecute vagrants, and those of disorderly lives.

IV. I have endeavoured more particularly to point out the principal business of the managers, and the general rules for their ordinary procedure; that the poor of bad characters ought to receive only the scantiest supply; that, though the poor of good characters should be more liberally provided for, yet this should never be equal to what an industrious man can earn by common labour; that particular attention should be given, to distinguish between those who are occasionally in distress, and those who, by age and infirmities, must remain continued burdens on the funds; and that the supply granted to the first be continued no longer than they stand in need of it; that particular attention be also bestowed on those who stand in need only of a partial supply, and those who can do nothing for themselves. A very small aid may prevent the first from coming altogether on the public; the last have no other dependence.

In procuring funds for the support of the poor, the managers must be, at least for some time, directed by what has been the practice of the place to which they belong. In some places, a poor rate

is unavoidable. Where it can be prevented, they ought to be cautious of imposing it. Though it is far from being meant to starve the poor, yet the managers ought to have frugality, in the distribution of their funds, always in view. If attention were paid to such rules, it is believed that the poor rate in many places, particularly in England, might be considerably reduced, and yet the poor be as well provided for as they now are.

‘ V. Where the poor are chiefly provided for by out pensions, it is proposed to oblige those who receive pensions to wear a badge. This is with a view to prevent those who can live without pensions from applying, and to prevent those who receive pensions from begging. An exemption from wearing a badge may be sometimes granted, but to those only who are known to be the most needy and the most deserving.

‘ VI. That, to enforce the authority of the managers, to prevent vagrancy, and to repress idleness and vice in the lower classes of the people, it is proposed that Bridewells, or correction-houses, should be built in every town and large parish. Though, through extreme bad management, they have not answered any good purpose in Britain, yet it is shown from facts, that they may be rendered highly serviceable by a very moderate degree of attention, and that, without them, no regular plan of police can ever be put in execution. A plan of a correction-house, with rules for the management of it, is laid down, and some other proposed plans considered.’

In the appendix, notice is taken of various publications both at home and abroad on the same subject; and some sensible queries relative to the poor are inserted, which were sent to the Author by a friend.

Upon the whole, we think the public is indebted to this intelligent Writer for the pains and attention he has bestowed on a subject at once intricate, and of the highest consequence to society. And, whatever may be the fate of his plan, we sincerely wish him long to enjoy that heartfelt satisfaction which a consciousness of having endeavoured to do good will always impart to the virtuous and feeling mind.

ART. VII. *The Capricious Lady*, a Comedy, altered from Beaumont and Fletcher. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

THIS play is an alteration of the *Scornful Lady*, to adapt it to present times and manners. We know that many people are so highly pleased by the strong colouring of the poets, and others have acquired such a reverential regard for the antique, that we shall hazard much in venturing to give it as our opinion, that Beaumont and Fletcher so frequently offend probability both in manners and fable, as scarcely to be reconcilable, by any alteration, to truth and nature. That they have many very striking beauties, we are sensible; and that they might greatly contribute by their wit

wit and pathos to assist one, or one hundred modern dramas, we are ready to allow. They are a mine of treasure, in which the poetic labourer who has not wealth enough of his own, may dig with infinite profit; he ought however to furnish new vehicles for the conveyance of his diamonds, and to give them a smoother polish, or they will hardly appear to so much advantage as a well set counterfeit.

Let any impartial person determine whether the Elder Loveless preserves in the least degree the manners of a well bred and polite gentleman, or if a lady were likely to be won by his stile of courtship. We think the comedy might as well be called the *Scornful or Capricious Gentleman*, as *Lady*, for surely none but Grimalkin ever wooed in his mode.

Of the alteration little can be said, because little has been done except negatively, that is, much has been left out, and in general with propriety. Some things however of necessity have been added. The following scene contains more, we believe, of the present Author's (and we have read with some attention) than all the rest of the play; from which our Readers will be enabled to determine, how far the stile and manner of the Modern Writer assimilates with the Ancient.

Scene changes, Enter YOUNG LOVELESS, CAPTAIN, and POET.

Capt. Well, but, my gallant *Loveless*, tho' thy brother be come home, and hath resumed his fortune, marriage will cure all again. There's no fear of the widow's husband returning to life again.

Poet. Yes, yes, Marriage will cure all again; and thanks to our most excellent *Lady Grocer*, for giving us such good reasons to be merry!

T. Lov. Why, 'faith, Gentlemen, I must join you in the general mirth; for our most excellent *Lady Grocer*, as you call her, hath not only made me merry, but wise. In short, she has shewn me the end of my line, and happily has taught me to barter folly—for reflection.

Poet. (*whispering to the Captain.*) What does he mean by Reflection?

Capt. D-mn me, if I know!—I never made use of such a word in all my life.

Poet. Well, noble *Loveless*, you are pleas'd to be merry, we see?

T. Lov. Why yes, Gentlemen, merry in *fort*, but not mad. There was a time I could be the latter; but the full moon, that then influenced my understanding, is now on its wane, and I am just as I should be.

Capt. and Poet. Explain—explain—my noble *Loveless*!

T. Lov. Why, as thus: Born with strong passions and a good constitution, they played into each other's hands against my reason—my fortune furnished them with the means:—but just before the game was up, this charming Widow betted on my side, turned the luck against my adversaries, and thus I recovered my original stake.

Capt. Z-nds! I don't well understand this lingo.

Poet. I fear we're all aground, Captain, (*aside*).—Well, but my noble

noble *Loveless*, you don't mean to forsake us? Consider, we have been your dearest friends.

T. Lov. Aye, but you see the dearest friends must part. Come, come, you have had your turn out of me long enough, in all conscience! It is but looking out for such another fool as I have been; and sure, Gentlemen, you cannot pay so fashionable a town as this is, so ill a compliment, as to think you'll long want a choice.

Capt. Prithee, my noble *Loveless*, do but consider!—We are undone, if you desert us.

T. Lov. For shame, Captain! If you have the courage you pretend to, carry it to the camp; your country demands it, and will pay you nobly for it. If it is but pretence (as I have strong reason to think it is) you must take it to other markets—the *Stews* and *Gaming-houses*. There you will meet with those to whom the consciousness of *deserving chastisement* will make the counterfeit pass for the reality.—As to you, my little Poet, who seem to be born for the age you live in, the World, I dare say, will do you more justice; for since your fraternity have shortened the road to fame by pulling down the merit of others to their own level, the Worshipful Company of Scribblers cut no inconsiderable figure in the great Corporation of Knaves and Fools.

Capt. So, so, 'tis all over, I see!—D-mn me, this comes of following Younger Brothers; fellows who are often as much obliged to live by their wits as other people!

Poet. This plot thickens too soon, Captain!—We must lay our next deeper.—Adieu *Loveless*! (Exit with Captain.)

T. Lov. Farewell, my once noble compeers; and as I have met with my reformation, may ye as speedily meet with your deserts!—
Enter Widow.

Wid. So, Mr. *Loveless*, I saw your companions on the stairs! They looked rather moodily, methought, and seemed to cast their eyes upon me as the cause of their ill temper.

T. Lov. Thou hast guess'd right, my sweet Widow!—A man going into bondage like me, having no occasion for a train, I took the liberty of discharging my supernumerary attendants.

Wid. I should be sorry, Sir, to break in upon your pleasures.

T. Lov. Thou wert born to heighten them, my sweet Widow; and 'tis with shame I now reflect, ever to have called my former follies by that name.

Wid. But art thou sure now, thou wilt never relapse, and find thyself again mistaken!

T. Lov. O! never after recovering a surfeit!—It is your sickly appetite that finds a novelty in variety; but your man of experience, knowing how unhealthy it is, sits down pleased with the wholesomeness of a good single dish, and sticks to it to the end of his life.

Wid. If I was but sure now, that you would constantly observe this regimen—

T. Lov. You being the physician, how can you doubt it?

Wid. O, I do not doubt the goodness of my prescriptions! But may not you, like a spoiled child, refuse the physic, tho' it be administered to you for your own good?

T. Lov. Never, when it comes from so fair and kind a hand
Besides,

David. I have so long experienced what it was to be ill, that I shall now be the more guarded against a relapse.

Wid. Well, I find I must trust to those promises; and as you have cured me of the folly of knight-hood, I am the more apt to flatter myself, I might have cured you of the follies of variety and dissipation.

Y. Lov. Why, this is as it should be;—a free confession on both sides, and the only way to make our union lasting.—As for my part, I'm determined to be happy; and when once a man takes up seriously this resolution, it is hardly in the power of accidents to thwart it.

Wid. I will not promise so stoutly, but hope to learn obedience from my husband.

Y. Lov. Here, then, let me sign and seal (*kisses her hand*)

And thus my liberty resign;

My greatest happiness to call you mine.

[*Exeunt.*]

It requires little penetration to observe, that the scene is of a very different complexion from the others where the original Authors speak. When the old writers used a metaphor, they did not run it out of breath, fearful lest they should never find another. From the speech of Young Loveless beginning "O! never after recovering a surfeit," the allusion to physic, sickness, and health, is dragged through six speeches, till every Reader of taste must indeed have had a *surfeit*. It is the business of him who alters and adapts the plays of others, to read his author with circumspection, to endeavour to catch his manner wherever he makes additions, and to warm his imagination; if possible, till he equals what he imitated.

ART. VIII. *Elements of the Theory and Practice of Physick and Surgery.*

By J. Aitkin, M. D. 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. boards. No Bookseller's Name.

OF these volumes, the latter has been in the hands of the public for several years; and if we mistake not, it has been a general and a just opinion, that Dr. Aitkin's *Elements of Surgery* are the offspring of vanity and affectation. The additional volume is well calculated to confirm this opinion. The reader, as he toils through it, is distracted between contrary inclinations; sometimes he is disposed to throw away the book in disgust at the quaint and far fetched terms in which the Author has attempted to disguise trite and obvious reflections, and sometimes he is amused at the strutting dignity of expression in which he has conveyed his singular opinions. Dr. Aitkin impresses us with the idea of a pedant straining every nerve in the search of words and phrases that have the appearance of deep erudition, little solicitous, nay perhaps incapable of judging, whether they are harsh or elegant, obscure or perspicuous; proper or improper;

per; and should memory or invention furnish what he seeks, he seems to seize it with the most eager avidity, and to display it to his Reader with an air of conscious triumph, and a smile of the happiest self-complacency. The Author's labours have not been unsuccessful, and we venture to foretell that when affectation and ignorance shall have succeeded in the efforts they are daily making to expel simplicity and propriety out of the English language, then Dr. Aitken's writings will be studied as models of classical elegance. In support of this prediction we adduce the following passages. "The diagnostic of measles fever prior to the specific eruption is chiefly collected from the specified affection of the eyes." "The ague poison is variously virulent and its morbid influence will be proportioned." In one place the Author talks of "the medical conduct of a circumstance," and in another of "ardent spirit being supremely antiseptic over dead animal substances."

That the Reader may not suspect that these specimens are unfair representations of this Writer's mode of expression, we shall transcribe a whole paragraph or two. "Materia medica in a restricted and vulgar acceptation denotes the mass of the pharmaceutic remedies or drugs chiefly which are still monstrously numerous, and have obtained in general estimation a preponderance over the dietetic ones, opprobrious and highly pernicious." "Assiduous application of remedies as specified, accommodated to the intensity of vesicular fever, constitutes any speciality of cure it seems to admit." The whole work consists of the same obscure and uncouth jargon. If Lucian himself had undertaken to ridicule medicine, he could not have contrived a style better adapted to his purpose.

We come now to make a few observations on the doctrines delivered by Dr. Aitken. In his preface he sets out with bidding defiance to the tyrant, authority. Writers may perhaps be divided into three classes, when considered with respect to the deference they pay to authority, the first consisting of those who implicitly adopt received opinions, the second of those who deviate from them from conviction and a regard to truth, the third of those who reject them merely because they are the received opinions. The few deviations of Dr. Aitken we are inclined to impute to the last mentioned motive. We say the few deviations, because in reality the chief novelty of these elements consists in that singular mode of expression which has been already noticed. His plastic power, for example, is neither more nor less than the principle called by some, *nature*, by others *vis medicatrix nature*, &c. Dr. Aitken's denomination well enough

though expresses that modification by which such effects as new granulations of flesh, &c. are produced, but of those violent efforts, such as profuse sweats, by which nature attempts to relieve herself from acute and dangerous diseases, it conveys no idea.

Among the singular tenets of this Author may be enumerated a strong antipathy to emetics : how far this notion is just, we submit to the judgment of practitioners. He also believes that in the exhibition of opium, the stimulant power of that drug may be safely neglected. Now this is not only a false, but a dangerous doctrine ; it is contrary to universal practice and universal experience. Should any unexperienced person be induced to exhibit opium in pleurisy, phrenitis and the like diseases by the authority of Dr. Aitkin (and surely if nothing was to be dreaded from its stimulating qualities, no good reason could be given for withholding it in inflammatory complaints) he would soon be convinced, by too melancholy a proof, of the temerity with which our Author has ventured to recede from the general opinion. In a writer who professes to despise authority, such an indication of cure as the plentiful use of diluents in order to wash away saline and acrimonious matter, will be thought a little extraordinary.

Of Nosologists Dr. Aitkin asserts, that their labours have not been "entirely wasted, because they serve to shew the vanity of the attempt." After such a declaration, it would seem to require no vulgar share of confidence in his own abilities to compose a nosology. He however has not been discouraged by the failure of his predecessors, and if we may be allowed to parody a line of the poet, he will be found

"Such in those pages as in all the rest."

If obscure and unintelligible definitions constitute the merit of a nosologist, he will be esteemed the *Magnus Apollo* of the science.

These specimens of the style and the doctrines of this work will we doubt not, be deemed by many redundant, and by all sufficient. But before we conclude, it will be proper to mention an artifice of the Doctor's, in which though he has had many rivals, yet he must be allowed to have gone beyond them all ; we mean in swelling out his scanty materials into two very large octavo volumes*. Many of his pages do not contain more than three or four lines of original

* Mr. Cadell bookseller first advertised this publication at 14s. in boards. Mr. Dilly has since advertised the same book to be sold at 12s. in boards, but we are not informed of the reason of this variation of publisher or of price.

matter, and many none at all; the deficiency is supplied by numerous synonymes and a parade of unnecessary quotations.

ART. IX. *Conspexus Medicinæ Theoreticæ.* Ad usum Academicum. Auctore J. Gregory, M. D. Ed. alt. i. e. A View of the Theory of Medicine. By Dr. Gregory. Second Edition. 2 vols. 8vo. 12s. boards. Creech. Edinburgh.

AT the entrance of this work we meet with a preface or dissertation of very considerable length. It furnishes us with an account of the improvements and additions to be found in this second edition, the Author's reasons for using in his text book a language different from that in which he delivers his lectures, and a brief history of Medicine with observations on collateral subjects. As this dissertation is perhaps the only part of the work which can be strictly considered as original, it requires particular attention. Besides many corrections and enlargements throughout the whole performance, this edition is made one third larger than the former by the addition of the *therapeia*.

Notwithstanding the advice of many of his friends, and in particular of his bookseller, the *prince of critics*, who assured him that there are now few readers or purchasers of Latin books on medical subjects, he has persisted in writing in that language; for he is of opinion that the contrary practice, which has for some time prevailed in this and some other countries, and now indeed begins to prevail universally, threatens science with great inconveniences; as in the first place new improvements and discoveries are prevented from passing from country to country with the same rapidity as when learned men used one common language, or what is still worse, they are entirely confined to the spot where they were first made; and secondly many valuable Authors are condemned to undisturbed repose on the shelves of gloomy libraries. Nay perhaps, says he, the time will come when physicians shall apply to Latin works the same expression, with the change of only a single word, that in the ages of darkness was used by the Monks of those which were written in Greek, "It is Latin, it can neither be decyphered nor understood." Such are the reasons by which Dr. Gregory has been induced to recommend to his pupils the study and use of the Latin language by his authority and example. He next proceeds to consider what is to be understood by the term *Theory of Medicine*, the difficulties under which it labours, and the rocks on which theorists have in general split. To this succeeds a sketch of the rise and progress of medicine. The

characters of the most celebrated medical authors both in ancient and modern times, have been so frequently the objects of critical discussion, that it is difficult to advance any observations that have not been anticipated by others. Accordingly our Author has contented himself with repeating the received opinions on their merits and defects. But the way in which he has executed this deserves commendation. His manner of expression is sprightly and agreeable, his metaphors are well supported and well adapted, and he has happily contrasted the praises and the censures that have been bestowed upon the several systematic writers.

We now come to the last topic, viz. some reflections on the present state of physic, and on the advantages and disadvantages resulting from the maxims by which medical pursuits are now directed. The following extract will, we hope, convey to our Readers some idea of our Author's mode of thinking. We have also another reason for selecting this passage, it is because in our opinion the remarks contained in it deserve the attention not of physicians only, but of others; for notwithstanding our daily boasts of superior refinement and knowledge, empirics are as numerous and as impudent, and therefore must meet with as great encouragement in the present as at any former period.

After having stated the mischiefs arising from a blind deference to the opinions of celebrated writers, the Author proceeds thus :

‘ But another evil, of a very different nature, and originating from a quite opposite source, now corrupts medicine, and threatens more imminent danger. Physicians utterly rejecting both authority and reasoning, have set about enlarging and improving the salutary art, by experiments and observations alone, which can admit of no doubt. Hence have arisen credulity and a senseless admiration of whatever medicines mistake or design have proposed, at the same time extolling them with the most sanguine commendations, and boldly affirming that they were infallible remedies for certain diseases.

‘ We cannot be surprised that such kind of knowledge, so well adapted to the ignorant and the idle, should have proved acceptable to many as well physicians as others, and that great numbers should have employed their endeavours where the labour was so inconsiderable and the rewards so ample. It has in fact happened that many remedies, some good and more bad, have been brought forward and many observations made, and many forged by physicians under a persuasion that they thus not only advanced the art they professed, but also acquired for themselves both reputation and profit. But, if I may again quote Bacon, it is not only necessary to procure a greater number of experiments, and those of a quite different kind from what have been hitherto made, but likewise to introduce a quite different order and mode of proceeding in conducting such experiments :

for

for as it was before observed, vague experiment with no object in view, is mere *groping in the dark*, and tends rather to confound than enlighten. But when they are conducted by certain rules, and in a continued series, then just expectations may be formed of advancing the sciences.

Were even all the observations true, and the remedies that have been proposed efficacious, still a certain theory would be necessary, in order that the physician may know when it is proper to give his medicine, and when, and with what view, to withhold or change it, as a change of circumstances may require: for every one who is the least versed in these matters knows, that the more excellent the medicine, the greater danger is to be apprehended from an improper application of it, and the greater care is requisite to exhibit it with safety and effect. Notwithstanding this, a blind and boundless confidence in the power of such and such remedies to heal such and such diseases, is so natural and pleasing to the vulgar, and indeed to all who are not endued with true science, that if the same madness should seize physicians themselves, the foundation on which alone it can stand, being destroyed, the science of medicine must fall to the ground.

Such credulity and boasting with respect to the wonderful and almost divine virtues of certain medicines, may indeed serve the purposes of mountebanks, and are excuseable in the common people, but nothing can be more unworthy of a man of sense and learning, and especially of an honest and candid physician; for such an one, knows, or least ought to know, if he will make use of his reason and senses, that there does not nor can there exist a certain and infallible remedy for even the most trifling complaint. Nor would any man of sound intellect (unless he wishes to deceive) make an unlimited promise to cure the slightest cough or headach or toothach by any medicine; for such power does not exist in the whole science and art of medicine, far less in a single remedy, however vaunted. Such is the structure of the human body that it is exposed to various diseases, from various causes, from which, it recovers sooner or later, either by the unassisted efforts of nature, or by the aid of such remedies as are proper to promote her endeavours, but scarcely ever by the effects of medicine alone without the help of nature. Now since the condition of the body wonderfully varies in different men, and indeed in the same person at different times, it is evident that the best and most efficacious medicines will not always produce the same effects, nor be always beneficial, but sometimes hurtful, and that the efforts of nature herself, which in general do so much service, will be sometimes excessive, sometimes inconsiderable, or none at all, and sometimes again immoderate and therefore very dangerous. Moreover some disorders are absolutely incurable; the innate powers of the constitution make no efforts against them, nor do any medicines produce the smallest good effect. It is necessary therefore to be on our guard against such natural and common mistakes with respect to the virtues of remedies and the efficacy and dominion of the art itself; for they are not only unbecoming a wise and ingenuous physician, but lead to worse and more dangerous errors. The candid confession of the sagacious and experienced Radcliffe should be

deeply infixed in the minds of all medical persons and especially students, whose credulity is greater as their experience is little or none. "When I was young, said he, and little conversant in the art; I had at least twenty remedies for every disease, but now I am grown old in the practice of medicine, I know at least twenty diseases for which I have not a single remedy."

We should now proceed to a discussion of the doctrines contained in these volumes, but we have already in a former number assigned our reasons for not entering into a particular examination of text books. Of the present performance it may be sufficient to observe in general, that the learned Reader will not find the stock of his ideas much enlarged by a perusal of it, but for such Readers it was not designed. The Author has availed himself of the privilege that belongs to all compilers of elementary treatises, of taking their materials wherever they are to be found: The physiology appears to have been drawn from the best writers: the pathology and therapeutics nearly correspond to the most approved opinions taught in the British schools. This will not surely be understood as a reproach. For so young a teacher as Dr. Gregory, it is sufficient praise that he has selected with judgment and arranged with perspicuity the observations of others. It were neither to be expected nor wished that he should have constructed a new theory of medicine.

The Author is entitled to great praise on account of the propriety of his style: this is the part of his work which more peculiarly belongs to him. It is smooth, clear, and pure, at least as pure as the nature of his subject will admit. It is not like many modern books deformed by asperities from ignorance of the Latin idiom, nor like others rendered obscure by an affectation of elegance.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. X. *OEuvres d'Histoire, Naturelle & de Philosophie, de Charles Bonnet.* Works relating to Natural History and Philosophy. By Ch. Bonnet, 8vo. 12 toms. 3l. 3s.

THOSE of our Readers who are fond of natural history, and especially of the speculative part, will be pleased to hear of this collection. It is not however a mere collection; the additions are very considerable amounting perhaps to a third of the whole: they appear under various forms, of notes, essays, and letters. All Europe is well acquainted with the writings of M. Bonnet; it would therefore be improper for us to enter into a particular consideration of their merits.

merits. Instead of taking this step, we shall, by way of specimen of the additional matter, lay before our Readers a translation of one of the letters relating to a subject in the highest degree curious and interesting, and at the same time known, we believe, in this country, only in consequence of some vague reports.

“ Letter 43. To Sr Spallanzani, Genthod 13th of January 1781.

“ I perceive by your interesting reply, my dear and celebrated friend; that our opinions coincide on several points; this coincidence affords me the greater pleasure, because it shews that I have reasoned justly on several of your experiments. But such a coincidence is no new thing between you and me, for how often have we *converged* in like manner on several topics of natural history. It may be said, that my soul sometimes passes into your brain, and yours into mine. I owe you many acknowledgements for having interrupted the composition of your work on the generation of plants, in order to write that long and excellent letter which you call upon me to answer. I am surprised that you have been able to do it in two days. I am not so happy as you in this respect, and am able to allot a few hours only every day to composition, so that when I write letters of eighteen or twenty pages, you may be sure that they have taken up at least twelve days. I must therefore now in my turn, suspend my own labours for the sake of answering the principal articles of yours of the 12th of December. I shall follow the order of your articles, or rather of my own in my last letter, which you yourself followed, and to which you replied.

“ 1. I doubted not but the experiments which I proposed to you, in order to detect the germ in the ovarium before fecundation would likewise suggest themselves to your consideration. You seem not to expect much from them: you presume that the extreme minuteness, as well as the transparency of the germ, would conceal it from all your researches. It seems to me, that the first step is to find the means of diminishing the transparency of the germ without altering it; for in my opinion this rather, than its extreme minuteness keeps it concealed from the most piercing looks of the observer. A very small drop of vinegar or spirit of nitre poured on the cicatricula of the egg, by condensing a little the moisture which dilutes the solids of the germ, may perhaps render them perceptible. You might also try other liquors. Two other means suggest themselves to my mind: the first would consist in endeavouring to spread a liquor coloured by some vegetable tincture over the yolk: how do we know

but the vessels of the yolk would absorb this tincture, and carry it to the germ: should it only colour the contiguous parts, it would at least shew its place or point. The action of the vessels should be aided by a gentle heat. The ingenious process employed by Mr. Beguelin to shew the successive progress of the chicken in the egg would not be unserviceable to you in your attempts: again who knows but a certain degree of heat would contribute to render the germ apparent by coagulating its lymph? to substitute the semen of the cock, or any other bird, would be another means of attaining the same end. As the semen is beyond controversy the liquor which has the greatest influence over the germ, it seems to be best adapted to produce some sudden change which might render it accessible to our microscopes.

" 2. I am obliged to Messrs de Reaumer and Nollet, for those little breeches of waxed taffety, which they contrived for the male of a certain species of the frog, in order to discover the manner in which he impregnates his female: and I am not less obliged to you for the repetition of this ingenious experiment. The male, which you clothed with these breeches, did not accomplish the impregnation of the female, because the semen remained then in his breeches. Since this liquor impregnated artificially the tad-poles to which you applied it, there can be no doubt but that it was real semen.

" 3. You are then of opinion that the suspicion * I intimated in this article is not without foundation. I learn from this article of your letter a new truth, viz. "that in the TREE-FROG, the tad-poles are sometimes found fecundated, though they remain as yet in the rectum, whether it happens in consequence of the semen sliding into the orifice of that gut, or because the tadpoles scarce out of the rectum, and already moistened by the semen, perhaps return into it in consequence of the motions of the female at the instant she is surprized by the observer." Both these explanations appear much more probable than my own.

" 4. I am glad to be informed that you have seen very distinctly the circulation of the blood in tad-poles, even be-

* This suspicion is thus expressed in the preceding letter "Here I am unable to discover the sense of your expressions." "that the fecundation of the eggs effected without the body of the mother, penetrates a very little way within her." "Is it possible that the action of the semen should be propagated by the aid of the gelatinous matter which envelops the eggs?" but I ought not to attempt to guess your meaning."

fore they began to move at all. Many other intestine movements no doubt take place in our germs, before they are sufficiently developed to move their small limbs. If germs are originally contained one within the other, if they grow one by means of another, a vast number of intestine movements must have taken place in them since the time of their creation.

“ 5. I am always a great gainer, when according to your wishes I point out to you new experiments to make. You have then made upon the fecundated eggs of fishes that which I indicated, (Art. 318. Corps Organ :) in order to ascertain whether these eggs might be kept in the dry like those of the tufted polypus; and you have found that they do not possess this privilege. Your various ways of proceeding permit me not to doubt of the truth of the result. You have carried this experiment still farther to the fecundated embryos of frogs and toads, and you have found that they do not, any more than the eggs of fishes possess the property of keeping in the dry. My hypothesis then with respect to the re-peopling of dried ponds is insupportable: but may not this privilege, which hath been refused to the eggs of fishes, have been accorded to fishes themselves in the state of infancy, or at some other period of their life. I am very desirous of knowing the conjecture you substitute instead of mine, and which you intend to explain in your work.

“ 6. You have pleased me by your account of the singular manner in which the male salamander impregnates the female: the whole of this was entirely new to me. The salamander is then very chaste in his amours; no true copulation takes place between the two individuals; only a few caresses on the part of the male, which prepare the female for fecundation. The male darts his semen into the water; it forms a little whitish cloud, which goes to envelop the open and swollen anus of the female and she is fecundated. What pity that the poets were unacquainted with the chaste amours of our salamanders; they would have turned them to good account in their fictions. That of Zephyr and Flora bears a strong analogy to the fecundation of the palm; in the animal kingdom I know nothing which resembles it more than the impregnation of your salamanders. That of marine plants approaches still nearer, the male does not project a fine powder, but a liquor which in like manner forms a little cloud in the water.

“ Since the semen of the male is always mixed with water, I see the reason why the artificial impregnation does not succeed with pure semen. The observer must imitate nature and dilute it with water. I suppose with you that the

very thick seed of the salamander requires dilution in order to effect the natural and artificial fecundation. In like manner the wisdom of nature has found the means of diluting the human semen by the lymph, which so many vessels pour into the testicles and the seminal vesicles. Physiologists tell us wonderful things on this subject.

“ 7. Few spectacles are so engaging to the philosophic observer as that presented by the amours of animals, and the various means by which the Author of nature hath ordained that they should preserve their species. Should some able physiologist ever undertake to compose a complete history of generation, he would undoubtedly begin by a delineation of the amours of animals and plants; and if he should be as great a painter as the illustrious Buffon, he will attain the art of interesting the understanding without exciting the passions; he will produce not a physical Venus, but a physical Minerva. There is room for supposing that the different modes of fecundation observable in different animals, are proportional to the degree of sensation accorded to each species, or, what amounts to the same thing, to their capacity for enjoyment. What difference in this respect between the fish or salamander, and the ape, the stag, or dog; and in the imperial race of man, how is the physical part modified by the moral!

“ 8. It is certainly very remarkable that amphibious animals, such as toads and the tree frog, never deposit their embryos on the ground, where they must infallibly perish, and that they always take care to deposit them in water, their natural element. You even give me to understand that they do not lay them in the first water they find, that they never lay them in running waters, which would convey them away and would not supply them with proper food; but that they constantly deposit them in stagnant waters, where the little tad-poles are not exposed to concussion, and where they are always surrounded by proper food. This kind of instinct very nearly imitates foresight, and attains its end equally well. But since we cannot in this case admit real foresight, which belongs exclusively to reason or intelligence, it remains to be ascertained how our amphibious animals are so unerringly determined to quit the earth for the sake of laying their eggs in dormant waters. The female, I should imagine, pressed by the desire of laying must feel a certain internal sensation, which renders her abode on dry ground painful, and inspires her with the desire of gaining the water, and since stagnant waters are not so cold as running waters, this may perhaps be the reason why she prefers the former, not on account of her young, of which she cannot have any know-

knowledge, or foresee the wants: for it is thus that nature hath on all occasions provided for the wants of young animals; she hath found means to connect these wants with those which the parents must feel in certain circumstances. Your memory must suggest so many instances as to render it unnecessary for me to point them out. Besides I see you entirely agree with me with respect to the foresight and intelligence, attributed so gratuitously, and so unphilosophically to brutes.

“ 9. I knew not that your illustrious compatriot Valisnieri had entertained the same idea as myself, concerning the effect of the long embraces of male frogs and toads. Nor did I recollect that Swammerdam on the contrary had supposed that so far from facilitating the passage of the eggs into the tubes, they rather serve to hinder it. I should not then have known which side to have taken between these two great authorities, if nature herself had not pronounced her decision from your lips. You inform me then that the opinion of Swammerdam, that the females are not embraced by the males, until the eggs have already traversed the tubes is not generally true; that it does not hold but in the *tree frogs*, and by no means in the aquatic frogs and in toads, but that Valisnieri is right with respect to the green aquatic frog. In this case then no general rule can be established, as you very properly remark, and we must wait till new researches have increased the number of facts.

“ 10. Mr. Demours had raised our curiosity to a very high pitch, by his account of the address of the male toad in assisting the female in bringing forth. His details were so circumstantial, that the truth of the fact appeared to be unquestionable, and I hesitated not to make use of it in the *Contemplations*. But it is really very singular, that neither you, my worthy friend, nor Mr. Roesel, should have surprised the male toad in this interesting employment. This would appear to weaken the credit due to the recital of the French observer, if testimonies simply negative could impair the most positive affirmation. Mr. Demours ought, as you observe, to have so described his toad that we might have known to what species it belonged.

“ 11. Your doubts with respect to the manner in which the impregnation of scaly fish is effected proceed from a sound logic, and we have both reasoned properly upon this subject, by estimating the authorities on either side. We know at least from the experiment of Mr. Jacobi, that simple dispersion in water is sufficient for the impregnation of the eggs. Your idea of employing the Chinese gilt fishes

fishes to clear up the question, to me appears excellent, and I cannot press you too warmly to realize it.

" 13. You adopt then with me the Hallerian doctrine of embryos lodged in the ovarium, or in the upper part of the tubes of our amphibia, which cannot be fecundated artificially. But you assign another cause of the fact, which I suspected not, and which appears to me, not less than to you, to contribute to produce it; since the glairy matter is the first nutriment of fecundated embryos, and since this matter does not envelop those contained in the ovarium, or the upper part of the tubes, it is quite evident, that even if the semen could impregnate them artificially, they would soon perish for want of nourishment. Your experiments on this subject leave nothing to be wished, since the embryos you have stripped entirely of their glairy matter could never be impregnated, while those which were only partially deprived of it were almost all fecundated. I know not whether naturalists before you, knew the true use of this matter.

" 15. The blood of amphibious animals, their saliva, the juice extracted from their liver, lungs, kidneys, their urine and ours are then the different liquors with which you have conceived the idea of mixing the semen. To these you have added vinegar, and none of these mixtures have deprived the semen of its prolific virtue. You have only observed, that when the urine and the vinegar were in too great abundance, fecundation did not take place, I doubted not but that you would think with me that the semen is not decomposed by these mixtures. But they prove admirably the astonishing energy of this fecundating liquor. They may further serve to guide you to discover which of the animal liquors hath the greatest analogy with the semen: for the liquor which in equal doses should have the least efficacy in destroying the virtue of the semen, might justly be presumed to be most analogous to it; and this would not be without its use in enquiries into the constituent parts of the semen.

" 16. It affords me great pleasure to find that we have both had recourse to the same comparison, in order to account for the prolific power of the semen incorporated in very small quantity with a very large mass of water. Your example taken from the poison of a viper, of which a very little drop often proves fatal to a great animal, is not either less appropriated or less instructive. Hence you have good reason for saying that we cannot be surprised that a very small portion of semen is sufficient to animate the heart of the embryo.

" 17. In this article you furnish me with a detail of the man-

manner in which you have proceeded in your artificial fecundations. I entirely approve of it. It is surely very surprising that an embryo touched with the fine point of a needle, which had been dipped in a mixture of three drops of semen and eighteen ounces of water, and which retained a drop measuring 1-50th of a line, should have been developed as perfectly and speedily as other embryos which were plunged into the semen. Your reflection on this subject is very just, since so small a drop of semen mixed with so large a quantity of water is sufficient to animate the embryo, it is very natural to infer that the surplus furnished by the male does not concur in the operation. But nature is never sparing in what concerns the propagation of the species: she is determined not to miss her aim, and she would run the risk of missing it by too great oeconomy. She perhaps also has an eye to the pleasures of fruition with respect to the male; for the emission is without doubt a pleasing sensation to him, and that kind mother is desirous that all her children should enjoy pleasure; otherwise too the male would want a motive of incitement.

“ 18. You justly conceive, my dear philosopher, all the attention I have paid to this interesting article of your letter. I imagined that I beheld with you those small pores in the cover of the embryo contrived for the introduction of the semen. Your details on this point fully prove to me that you have not suffered yourself to be imposed upon; and that these little mouths of which I had suspected the existence, are certainly to be found: and since they are dispersed over the whole cover, and this cover is perforated like a sieve, it can no longer be matter of surprize that the fecundation succeeds equally well wherever the embryo is touched with the needle after it has been dipped in the semen. The question now is, whether such apertures exist in the covers of the embryos of every species; and how probable is this after all that has been discovered concerning the mystery of fecundation: I do not then doubt, and I have never doubted that, if the germs of the pullet, of the lamb, of the calf, were as perceptible as the tadpole, you would detect absorbent pores similar or analogous to those in the embryo of your amphibia. I would ask if we have not the strongest proofs that fecundation is effected *from without*, and if it be thus effected, is it not necessary that there should be little pores prepared for the reception of the fecundating liquor? These absorbing pores and their dependencies contain without doubt anatomical peculiarities which we should admire if we were permitted to descend to the bottom of the abyss. Each pore is probably the orifice of a vessel communicating with the heart, &c.

“ 19. I now come to the most curious and important article of your excellent letter. I suspected not, I own, that you had already succeeded in the artificial impregnation of the female of a large animal by means of a small syringe, as I proposed to you to attempt in my last letter. This is one of the most important and interesting novelties that have presented themselves to the notice of naturalists and philosophers since the creation of the world. Your mode of proceeding and your scrupulous attention to establish in the most rigorous manner the truth of this artificial impregnation, put it beyond all controversy. Your bitch was then closely penned up for 23 days before the operation : on the 13th she began to be in heat ; on the 23d you injected the semen, and you kept her in close confinement 25 days longer, and on the 62d after the injection she brought forth three whelps well-conditioned, very lively, and resembling both the dam and the dog, which had supplied the fecundating liquor. Nothing can be more exact or better ascertained ; nothing can be finer or more original than this experiment. I congratulate you sincerely on your success, and what adds greatly to it, is that it was obtained with less than 13 grains of semen. This experiment comes very near those which you have executed on amphibious animals, and we have good reason for inferring that the dose of semen which produces fecundation in large animals, is very inconsiderable. I even presume if you could effect the fecundation of the embryos of a large animal in the ovarium, by the process I pointed out to you, you would obtain the same results as the amphibia afforded, and that a drop of semen 1-50th of a line in diameter would be sufficient to animate the embryo.

“ You are now in possession of a sure and easy way of ascertaining what species can procreate together ; and the experiments you propose attempting next spring by putting your voluptuous spaniel in the company of cats and rabbits, promise not so fair as those which you will make by introducing the semen of this spaniel into the uterus of a she-rabbit and a she-cat, and on the other hand by introducing the semen of the male rabbit and cat into the uterus of a bitch. You hold in your hand a precious clue which will guide you to the most important and unexpected discoveries. I know not whether what you have now discovered may not one day be applied in the human species to purposes we little think of, and of which the consequences will not be trivial. You conceive my meaning : However that may be, I consider the mystery of fecundation as nearly cleared up. What remains principally to be discovered is the formation of the mule, and what occasions the different marks of resem-

semblance between children and their parents; and this brings me to your 20th article.

“ 20. You do me great honour, my dear associate, by suspending your judgment between Haller and me with respect to the manner of the formation of the mule. What! did not the authority of the great Haller overbalance mine, which is so much less weighty, in your estimation? I would not have hesitated a single moment to admit with him that the semen acts on this occasion merely as a simple stimulant, could I have accounted for the conversion as it were of the horse into the mule. His hypothesis from its greater simplicity is more acceptable to the mind. But is it sufficient in all cases? In order to account for the formation of the GREAT MULE is it enough to say that the semen of the ass is a more powerful stimulant than that of the horse; and that hence it elongates so much the ears of the embryo contained in the ovarium of the mare; for how comes a part of the embryo's tail to be obliterated? why is its crupper so slender? and above all, whence comes the larynx so different from that of the horse and so nearly resembling that of the ass? I cannot, I own, conceive that the instantaneous action of a drop of semen on the heart of the embryo can produce effects so great, so different, so permanent. On the other hand I have against me the complication of my own hypothesis, of which the exposition required a long series of propositions, which make it appear still more complex, and not to be comprehended but by readers of great attention and much accustomed to analytic deductions. Hence many have committed strange mistakes with respect to my principles and their application.

“ There is also another circumstance which seems to militate against my hypothesis; this is the very trifling portion of semen which is sufficient for generation; it is not easy to comprehend how a drop of semen so disproportionate to the whole body of the embryo, can serve for its first aliment. But this difficulty presses on Haller as much as upon me; for it evidently implies that a given semen acts with more force than another on certain parts, and occasions a more ample evolution; that the semen of the ass, for instance, impels the blood with greater violence into the arteries of the ear; these are his own terms; he admitted therefore that the semen of the ass arrives at the arteries of the ears of the embryo of the horse; how, otherwise, could the simple action of this semen on the heart of the embryo propagagate its impression to the ears, and cause so excessive an evolution of them? Besides, how come the ears to be the only part of the head which grow to such a prodigious length, since all partake alike in the impulse of the heart. Further, Haller speaks

speaks of the power possessed by the semen of occasioning the growth of the beard, and of lengthening the tusks of the elephant and the wild-boar; he adds, if it hath this power of promoting a greater growth in certain parts than in others of the body which prepares it, it may have the same effect in the body of the foetus which it animates. Would not this serve to shew that our author tacitly supposes a dispersion of the semen through the whole body of the embryo? I suppose the same thing; and you have no greater difficulty than myself in conceiving the prodigious division of which a drop of semen is susceptible. What we know of the divisibility of matter smooths this difficulty. It is much to be regretted that our great physiologist confined himself to mere generalities on this subject, and that he did not apply his hypothesis to the explanation of the principal peculiarities offered by the mule. "It is true, says he, my answer does not explain either the mode or the mechanism by which the semen of the male excites the germ of the ear, and causes so large an evolution of it. But I am not obliged to explain this mechanism, provided my facts are well established. The influence of the semen on the growth of the beard and horns is demonstrated, though the manner may be perhaps for ever unknown. It is sufficient to shew that there is a certain power in the semen of the male, which determines the growth of the foetus, so that certain parts come to be more developed: It would not be more just to demand an explanation of the mechanism by which this is brought about, than of the reason why the absorption of the semen of the male produces the growth of the beard."

"I should have evaded much labour, if in imitation of my illustrious friend I had contented myself with repeating, that the semen of the male hath a certain power to cause the greater developement of certain parts*. But so vague an explanation not satisfying me, I have endeavoured to analyse facts, and from this analysis I have sought some solution which may be applicable to the most essential peculiari-

* Mr. Bonnet might have spared this censure of the illustrious physiologist. Baron Haller, when he undertook the greatest work which this or any preceding age has seen, did not intend to allow much room to mere conjectures. He tells us in his preface, that it was his design to give an account of the functions of the human body, as far as they were known with tolerable certainty. Why have the *Elementa Physiologiae* never been translated into English? The task is indeed surrounded with difficulty and toil, but in compensation for this we may observe, that a translation worthy of the excellence of the original would confer more honour on the translator than most original productions.

ties of these facts. In a word I have supposed that the strong traces of resemblance between the mule and ass implied in the semen of the latter something more than a simple stimulating power : am I deceived, think you, in this conclusion, and are you inclined to believe that a simple stimulating power is sufficient for the whole ? I cannot yet presume so much, but it is very possible that a more satisfactory hypothesis than mine may be imagined, and I will be the first to adopt it.

“ 21. You have done every thing with the semen of your amphibia you possibly could do in order to detect its real nature. It is not then either viscous or inflammable, acid or alkaline ; and yet how wonderful is its energy ! it evaporates like water, and it is very well worth remarking, that its most volatile part is precisely that which is unfit for fecundation. This in all appearance is only lymph or rather simple serum provided to prevent the too great viscosity of the fecundating part. It would be an interesting employment to carry on these researches to the semen of large animals : they have not been pushed so far as they ought. Nor would it be less interesting to know whether the semen of large animals incorporated like that of the amphibia with a great quantity of water or other liquors would in like manner preserve its energy. The happy experiment you have made on your bitch points out the path that should be followed in order to ascertain this point. The semen hath been ordained in a latent proportion to the force which effects irritability in animals, since it is destined to promote the action of that quality. I would not even venture to affirm that there does not exist in nature some other liquor besides semen capable of causing the evolution of the germ. Who knows if the powder of the stamina of certain plants may not make some impression on certain germs belonging to the animal kingdom. This is, if you please, a silly idea, but I lay before you every thing which passes through my brain. I could wish that the powder of the stamina of the barberry should be tried, in which the foetid and penetrating smell seems to announce great energy. Animals and vegetables compose but one family, and their analogies are very numerous. Inverted experiments such as this ought to be attempted, for it is only by infinitely multiplying the combinations of beings that our knowledge increases. I am always a little distrustful of our general conclusions, however apparently well-founded, because our premises are always more or less particular.”

Sr Spalanzani published the work of which this letter is a synopsis at Modena, towards the end of 1780, in 2 vols 8vo. under the following title. *Dissertazioni di Fisica Animale e Vegetale*. Few or no copies have we believe, yet reached this country.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1783.

POLITICAL.

Art. 11. *State of the Public Debts, and of the Annual Interest and Benefits paid for them as they will stand on the 5th of January, 1783; likewise, as they will stand (if the War continues) on the 5th of January, 1784.* Together with some Thoughts on the Extent to which the State may be benefited by OEconomy; and a few Reflections on the Conduct and Merit of the Parties contending for Power. By John Earl of Stair. Sixth Edition. To which is now first added, A Postscript, in Answer to a Postscript addressed to the Earl of Stair by the Author of "A Defence of the Earl of Shelburne." 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

HIS Lordship shews that, agreeably to what he had predicted, the total annual charge on the public on the 5th of January 1783, neat money, amounts to 15,138,311l. And that the total annual charge of neat money on the public, if the war continues for 1783, will, on the 5th of January 1784, amount to 16,229,311l. He next proceeds to state the probabilities, on which he presumes that the neat annual revenue of the nation can never durably, and permanently, for an average of years, be brought to exceed twelve millions. The consequence of which is, that the deficiency must fall on the creditors of the public, who, instead of receiving annually 9,638,311l. will only receive 6,500,000l. or 13s. 6d. in the pound.

With regard to public œconomy, *Lord Stair* is of opinion, that the relief to be expected from thence is very small, if considered relatively to the boundless expences in which we are at present involved; although he is far from discouraging the practice of it, as it is a duty government owe to the rest of their subjects, staggering under the weight of multiplied taxes.

As to the conduct and merit of the parties contending for power, *Lord Stair*, in a vein of good-natured irony, observes, "that we ought to acknowledge with becoming gratitude, the generosity of those gentlemen, who have offered and accepted of the service of the public at reduced prices: one gentleman, I think, so low as at 4000l. a year, hard money, and to name his deputy. To those who know the great abilities of the men, this will appear serving the public for next to nothing; in the mercantile stile of advertising, at the ready money price, far below prime cost. But as the public, continues his lordship, as well as individuals, may be hurt by buying pennyworths, I would not advise them to make many more such good bargains. In truth, however great the merit of the proposer may be, a reform is introduced with no good grace by those who are to continue to possess offices infinitely more lucrative, and perhaps, not much more efficient than those that are to be abolished. *Lord Stair*, with a severe dignity, that so well becomes his virtue, his rank, and his years, justly animadvertes on the estimation in which oratory is held in the British Senate. "In my conscience,"

says

says he, "I believe, a man would gain more credit, and certainly would be much more sure of preferment, by an ingenious rhetorical apology for the want of every human virtue, than by possessing, without the power of announcing, every great and good quality that can adorn human nature."

Respecting a Postscript addressed to the Earl of Stair by the Author of a Defence of the Earl of Shelburne, his lordship answers with dignity and with temper. He considers *that* as a desperate cause which must be supported by gross misrepresentation. The envenomed Author of the Postscript must himself allow, that Lord Stair gets fairly the better of him on the subject of his quotation from Shakespeare. "I accept, embrace, and apply to myself," says his lordship, "the omen of the quotation from Shakespeare: it is the character of the Earl of *Kent*, who is spoken of by an abandoned man, in the way the abandoned speak of those whom they do not like, because they do not resemble themselves: A man who loved his country and his King, yet would not stoop to make himself agreeable to either by flattery, and scorned to make himself formidable to either by faction."

Art. 12. *An Address to the People of England on the intended Reformation of Parliament.* 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

The Author of this Address is of opinion, with a thousand other pamphleteers, that a reformation of Parliament is necessary to the salvation of public freedom. His own heart and experience tell him, that there is yet much generous and disinterested zeal for the public good, remaining in many of his countrymen: and this stock of virtue he hopes will encrease, and be able to lop off the rotten part of the constitution. "Destroy" says he, "the boroughs notoriously corrupt, add to the counties and large towns more members, extend the right of voting to copyholders and stockholders in counties, and to all housekeepers in towns; and limit the duration of Parliament to the term of three years. The consequences of such an alteration would be, that the constituents would be so numerous, as to render all attempts to bribe entirely abortive." This is the substance of the address: and it is really astonishing that men should pester the public with repetitions of what meets our eyes in every pamphlet, and our ears in every company.

Art. 13. *Free Parliaments: or a Vindication of the Parliamentary Constitution of England; in Answer to certain Visionary Plans of Modern Reformers.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The blunt, but lively and shrewd Author of this performance endeavours to shew that, neither have the people any claim of right to annual Parliaments, nor would the exercise of such a right, supposing it to exist, be political wisdom. In like manner he endeavours to prove, that there is no period when *all* the people of England were represented, that is, voted for members of Parliament; and that the exercise of such a right, would be attended with the most mischievous and ruinous consequences.

It is of no importance, he observes, to search for the customs of Parliament before the Norman conquest. They cannot be ascertained with precision; and, if they could, the conquest gave a new birth to the constitution, by which they were all obliterated. The

convening of Parliament was indisputably a branch of the prerogative, even in the early times of William I. As to the number of Parliaments, and their periods, that were held by the several Kings from the conquest to Henry III. in whose reign representation commenced, those circumstances, the Author observes, prove nothing one way or the other, because in all the Parliaments or Wittenagemotes, there were no representatives of the people; each person summoned, acted for himself, and was answerable to none. He shews from the English history since that period, that there never was a general right of *election*; and that the first idea of Parliament was a *selection*. The original barons were a *selection*. The first writs for counties were directed to a *selection*. The writs that were afterwards sent to particular cities and towns were a *selection*. A general right of election, says he, was never supposed to exist, from the first day, to the present hour.

After reasoning concerning matter of fact, he proceeds to matter of expediency, and among other remarks, observes, that a quick change of Parliament would render many, if not all of the measures of Ministers uncertain and unstable. From an unlimited number of voters, the greatest confusions would arise in elections. Men of sense and property would be disgusted at Parliaments. The constitution would be at an end. Sweden recently lost her liberty, says the author, not by the consent of the nobles, who risked every thing to preserve it, but by the people abandoning their own cause.

Art. 14. *A Dialogue on the Actual State of Parliament.*
Stockdale.

Two gentlemen, one of them a Foreigner, the other a Member of Parliament, having met in a Coffee-house, not far from the Exchange, fall into a conversation on the British government. The Editor, who happened to be in the next box, recollected the substance of it as well as he could, and threw it upon paper. The Foreigner supposes the three principles of the British government, the regal, the aristocratical, and the popular, to be distinct and separate, and to act in opposition, and as balances to each other. The English gentleman shews, on the contrary, that the advantages of these principles arise from their being raised and blended together, and that if they were independent and opposite, a dissolution of the government must ensue. The Crown is dependent upon Parliament, the House of Lords is dependent upon the Crown, and both of them ultimately dependent on the House of Commons. All these *rights*, or *institutions*, or *principles*, are beneficial to each other from their connection, though not from their opposition. The fears which alarm so many persons, lest the influence of so dependent a King should, through the corruption of the times, render our government absolute, are wholly groundless. If there are defects in our constitution, they are owing to the original frame of the House of Commons, which never had an idea of an equal representation of the people, as its object. To infuse, therefore, into it a principle so opposite to its institution, the whole mass must be melted down and new-modelled; a very dangerous and ruinous measure! Suppose that the House of Commons could, by any regulations, be

be effectually secured from all influence of the Crown, and of the great men of the country; and that, by opening the elections to the people at large, by actual representation, by annual Parliaments, &c. that assembly might be rendered totally, or by a great majority plebeian; would not the consequence be, the certain annihilation of every other principle in our government, and the establishment of a perfect democracy?

This is a natural and important question, and merits the utmost attention. For we agree entirely with the Author of this judicious publication, that "Theory is but little to be depended upon in matters of government; and that nothing but experience can pronounce upon the effect of innovation. That maladies may be long palliated or borne with patience, when the ignorant interference of empirics may in an instant put a period to existence."

Art. 15. *A Constitutional Guide to the People of England at present unrepresented.* With a Letter to the Rt. Hon. Mr. William Pitt, on the Necessity of his moving for a Repeal of the Septennial Bill, previously to his proceeding on the Great Question of a Reform in Parliament. And with a Direction to each Parish or Town to take the Sense of the Inhabitants in the concise manner, in regard to a Reform of Parliament, and its Duration. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Harrison and Co.

There is nothing in this little pamphlet of two sheets, with so long a title, and so large a price, that is not hackneyed every day in newspapers, magazines, coffee-houses, ale-houses and in every circle of society, except it be the following direction.

"The inhabitants of each town and parish are desired to prepare a parchment with four columns; and under each to sign their names, to express their sense of a reform in Parliament, and the duration most agreeable to their collected opinions."

Art. 16. *The Propriety of retaining Gibraltar impartially considered.* 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

The Author is decidedly of opinion, "That the restitution of Gibraltar should be no obstacle to a peace, and that it ought to be restored to Spain, provided full and adequate compensation is received. He thinks, *Porto Rico*, with other advantages, might, perhaps, be an adequate compensation.

Art. 17. *A Serious Answer from One of the People, to Lord George Gordon's Letters to the Earl of Shelburne.* In which an Attempt is made, by fair and ingenious Argument to give ample Satisfaction to his Lordship's Doubts: and to relieve him, if possible, from any Inquietude for the Salvation of the State, considered either in a Moral, Political, or Religious View. With a Dedication to the Right Hon. the Countess of Huntingdon. 8vo. 1s. Hookham.

The Author of this piece advises Lord George to "return to an illustrious family, justly alarmed for his future conduct and safety, by perceiving evident marks of his disposition to engage once more with 'Sancho Fiber' in religious errantry." This *Serious Answer* seems indeed to have been written by ONE OF THE PEOPLE.

Art. 18. *Remarks on the Letters from an American Farmer; or a Detection of the Errors of Mr. J. Hector St. John: pointing out the pernicious Tendency of these Letters to Great Britain.* 8vo. 6d. Fielding.

At a time when there is great danger of thousands of industrious people emigrating from this country to America, the Author of this little piece thought he would do no injury to many misled individuals, or disservice to his country, if he should shew, that the hopes, which are held up to encourage emigration, are, in many instances fallacious and delusive. He has, particularly, convicted Mr. J. Hector St. John of many forgeries and fallacies, calculated to delude the good people of England into a persuasion that all beyond the Atlantic is a perfect paradise. He also convicts the American Farmer of inconsistencies; and all this in a vein of pleasantry and good-humour.

Art. 19. *A Letter to the Earl of Shelburne, &c. &c. from a Noble Earl of the Kingdom of Ireland, upon the Subject of final Explanation respecting the Legislative Rights of Ireland.* Second Edition. To which is annexed, an Extract from the Proceedings of the Irish House of Lords, upon the Subject of the Repeal of the 6th of George I. 8vo. G. Robinson.

The Author of this letter (supposed to be Lord Bellamont) complains, that the solemn voice of the Irish nation had been treated as the outcry of private views, or partial discontent: and that an attempt had been made to disprove the necessity of a final explanation respecting the legislative rights of Ireland, in order to arraign the patrons of that measure. His lordship insists on the necessity of that measure; proves that it is called for by the people of Ireland; but declares in the strongest language, his wishes, his hopes, and his conviction, that it will be for the mutual benefit of both England and Ireland. The annexed extract from the proceedings of the Irish House of Lords, is intended to prove and illustrate his lordship's political principles on the important subject of Irish independence. There is in Lord Bellamont's style, great pathos and energy, but at the same time a degree of perplexity and obscurity. His heart seems to labour with feelings which, though he wants not a flow of words, he is unable fully to express.

Art. 20. *A Letter to the Earl of Shelburne on the Peace.* 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

The style and manner of this letter is elegant, animating, and interesting. It proves the importance of excellence in composition. The very first page commands attention, and draws on the Reader to give the whole of the performance a patient, and favourable hearing. The Author describes the unparalleled combination of foes that have shaken, with too much success, the British empire. He paints the disastrous state of Britain at the commencement of the year 1782. But soon after, the tide of adverse fortune, which for so many years had run with an impetuosity not to be resisted, suspended its course at the most critical juncture, and returning in a contrary direction with equal violence and rapidity, bore up the drooping genius of England on its current. This was the era Lord
Shelburne

Shelburne chose, to humble his country at the feet of France and Spain. He arraigns the indecent and precipitate haste with which the treaty of peace was carried on; describes its great outlines; and shews that it was equally repugnant to the interest and the honour of England. He has severely exposed the folly of the Minister, in consenting to the article that settles the line of separation between Canada and the American Provinces, by which Great Britain is entirely cut off from her communication with the Lakes, and the navigation of the Mississippi; and particularly censures his opening the fishery of Newfoundland to France and America. He threatens the Minister with an impeachment, and endeavours, with great powers of language and reasoning, to alarm, and excite the vengeance of his countrymen.

Art. 21. *A Report of the Proceedings of the Committee of Association appointed at the adjourned General Meeting of the County of York, holden on the 28th day of March 1786; presented to the General Meeting of the County of York, holden on the 19th day of December, 1782.* Stockdale.

As the business and debates recorded in this compilation are published by the authority of the Association, there is no doubt of their being genuine. York Tavern seems to have grown into a new St. Stephen's Chapel. The Rev. Charles Wyvil is speaker of that house. Dr. Swinney, Mr. Edmunds, Mr. Haggard, and a thousand other obscure names, appear as members, and great are the applauses which these patriots bestow on one another.

Art. 22. *An Address to the People of Great Britain: containing Thoughts entertained during the Christmas Recess on the Independence of America.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Milne.

The Author of this Address endeavours to shew, that there is a necessity of Great Britain declaring the independence of America: and also that the independency of America will be beneficial to England. The independency of America is, in fact, acknowledged: although, it is probable, not in consequence of the reasoning contained in this address.

MISCELLANIES AND POETRY.

Art. 23. *The Tragic Muse: A Poem addressed to Mrs. Siddons.* 4to. 1s. Kearsley.

The declared purpose of the Author of this Poem is, to delineate the particular and extraordinary merit of Mrs. Siddons as a tragic actress, and to expose the false taste in acting, that has so long been too common, but more especially in playing female characters of distress. In order to illustrate his subject, he ventured to exhibit his Heroine, or *Tragic Muse*, as he calls her, in her five principal characters, viz. in Calista, Belvidera, Jane Shore, Euphrasia, and Isabella. A finer field was never perhaps offered for poetical description. In the whole circle of human affairs, and the whole range of human imagination, more interesting subjects are not to be found, than in those five characters.

Those who have seen Mrs. Siddons in all her principal characters, will be the best judges of the merit of the *Tragic Muse*, considered in a critical light; but those whom want of leisure, or dis-

stance of place have deprived of that pleasure, will be no less anxious to know her style of playing. We pretend not to decide on this matter ourselves, but think the piece has many beauties as a poetical composition.

Churchill's character of the late celebrated Mrs. Cibber, illustrated by a description of her particular merit in Alicia, has long been deservedly admired. We cannot, however, help thinking, that our poet's character of Mrs. Siddons, and his exemplification of her excellence in the part of Calista, which immediately follows that character, is drawn with great force. But the reader shall judge for himself.

After reprobating the false taste in acting, the Author thus introduces his Heroine :

‘ How different, SIDDONS ! thy affecting style,
Thou glory, pride, and wonder of our isle !
Unconscious of the crowds thy talents please,
Thy motions all are dignity and ease :
No trap, no lure, for mean applause is laid ;
No start, no languish, to the Pit is paid :
To Nature just and thy Dramatic Part,
Thy Action all is taught Thee by the Heart ;
Without whose lessons fairest Players seek
In vain with Virtue's tear t' impearl the honest cheek.

‘ Thy piercing eyes, through Passion's maze that roll,
Mark all the painful feelings of the soul,
With look as keen as those allied to joy,
Or those where revels the ITALIAN Boy.
The glance of Rage, Distraction's frantic stare,
The pangs of Grief, the workings of Despair,
Are there distinctly seen : there drawn so true,
That Beauty's self with terror strikes the view !
When to the eye their aid the features lend,
And all the tints of darkest Trouble blend,
To paint CALISTA, fond ill-fated maid !
By boundless love and confidence betray'd.

‘ When her proud Spirit flames, like Fury fell,
That Friendship dares unwelcome truth to tell ;
When Self-reproach her haughty bosom stings,
And Public Shame yet sharper sorrow brings ;
When slavish Passion yields to high Disdain,
And all the Heroine throbs in every vein ;
When Vengeance just has laid her spoiler low,
And she her weakness wails in weeds of woe,
All hope extinct ; yet heaves a woman's sigh,
That one so young, so gay, so soon should die !
And drops, by intervals, a guilty tear,
Nor knows she sheds it o'er LOTHARIO'S bier :
Beneath a Parent's frown, when press'd to earth,
The Day the execrates that gave her Birth ;
When, by a Father's anguish'd heart forgiven,
She smiles, forgetful of offended Heaven ;

Then

Then boldly calls the Poinard to her aid,
 And refuge takes in Death's tremendous shade!
 Thy every Look and every Motion shew
 Th' ITALIAN Bride, the masterpiece of ROWE."

Her other characters, drawn with equal boldness, follow in succession, after certain pauses, concluding with that of Isabella; which as it is the last, is perhaps the best. The Author is peculiarly happy in adapting the flow of his versification to the tone of the passion he describes, and in giving force to his images without the too frequent use of compound epithets. The poem has, however, one capital defect, which it is yet in the Author's power to remedy: it affords no room for direct comparison. If the merits of other great tragic actresses had been contrasted with those of Mrs. Siddons, the piece would have been infinitely more interesting.

Art. 24. *The Family Picture: or Domestic Dialogues on amiable and interesting Subjects; illustrated by Histories, Allegories, Tales, Fables, Anecdotes, &c.* Intended to strengthen and inform the Mind. By Thomas Holcroft, Author of *Duplicity*, a Comedy. 2 vols. 12mo. L. Davis.

Mr. Holcroft informs us, in his advertisement, that "The principal intention of this work is to give that strength and fortitude to moral conduct, which are so apt to decline in times of refinement and luxury; but which are so essential to individual and national happiness. The author's claims to literary reputation are few: he has endeavoured, however, both in the *Dialogue* and *Narration*, to write to the understanding as well as to the heart: or, to select from those who had the same intention. His own feelings have certainly been on the side of propriety and virtue: if he has expressed himself so as to incite similar sensations in others, he has obtained what he purposed." The execution of the present work, which is chiefly a compilation, will not, we are persuaded, hurt the benevolent intentions of the Author.

There is a mixture of dialogue and story in the performance. Mr. Egerton, who had been in the service of the East India Company, having married, and retired into the country; dedicates the most of his time to the education of his children, whose minds he endeavours to form by introducing, on proper occasions, apposite stories, where the bad consequences of vice, and the advantages of a virtuous conduct are displayed. Mr. Egerton, with his wife and children, together with Mr. Forrester, a neighbouring gentleman, and his daughter, are the speakers introduced in the dialogue part of the publication.

The virtues, the vices, and foibles of mankind, are the subjects of conversation. To illustrate the advantages and amiableness of virtue, and to point out the deformity and bad consequences of vice and folly, are the histories, allegories, &c. introduced: they are selected with judgment, will instruct by their appositeness, and allure by their variety.

Art. 25. *The Political Squabble; or a Scramble for the Loaves and Fishes.* A poetical Essay: (partly in Hudibrastic Verse) adapted to the Characters of our Statesmen in general,

from the Demise of his late Majesty to the present date. Addressed to all Parties, and dedicated to the Right Hon. the Marquis of Carmarthen. By Nicholas Neatheride, Gent. 4to. 1s. 6d. Barker.

Pity us, gentle Reader! we have actually perused the Political Squabble from the beginning even unto the end, and it consists of no less than thirty pages of such rhymes as the following.

“ In Britain’s Realm, where Freedom reigns,
And Charter gen’ral Right maintains;
Where all are subject to Controul,
And Form commix’d pervades the whole;
A Government on stable Base,
Which Schemes nor sap, nor Plots can raze;
Compos’d of Prince, of Peers, and Commons,
Amenable to equal Summons;
No wonder that, as Quack Physicians,
Start up our Pseudo-Politicians:

As mortals all are lur’d by Pelf,
And View in ultimate is Self;
Whether we soar in higher Sphere,
Or Rank of Life bring up the Rear;
Hence long the Hue and Cry are giv’n
Within the Walls of Holy Stephen;
With Venom fraught, the envious Outs
The Ins have worried with their Scouts;
An hapless Pack their Fate bemoan,
To quit a Substance for a Bone;
And tantalize on distant Dishes,
Nor realize the Loaves and Fishes.”

Art. 26. *Ode on the late Change in Administration*, inscribed to the Right Hon. Charles James Fox. 1s. Cruttwell, Bath.

This modern Pindar, in a perfect orgasm of poetico-political enthusiasm, swears “by the eternal powers” that all was lost had not Lord Shelburne, Mr. Fox, and the Rockingham party come into power. These he calls a “firm, united, patriot band;” yet thinks it necessary to caution them against the machinations of the “idle drones that seem banished from the hive;” and therefore exclaims most passionately “beware!” After this his Muse becomes quite headstrong, so that he is obliged to ask her “What frenzy hurries thee away?”—But, without making any reply, she carries him full-speed to the sea side, where Neptune appears to him in all his glory, and assures him, that Old England shall rise again, like a Phoenix from her ashes, and slay Frenchmen by thousands, and ten thousands, as of old. A compliment to the Americans, and the Rockingham administration, closes this performance, which the Author calls an Ode.

The writer is a warm politician, but a very frigid poet.

Art. 27. *Coombe Wood*. A Novel: in a Series of Letters. By the Author of Barford Abbey, and the Cottage. 2 vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Baldwin.

Coombe Wood is one of those literary whipt-syllabubs, which furnish a species of amusement to a numerous class of readers. We find

find little either to blame or to commend in it, except that none of those warm descriptions with which some of our novels abound, and which make so deep an impression on the minds of the youth of both sexes, are here to be met with.

The hero and heroine of the novel, Lord Edwin and Miss Altam, on the eve of having their mutual passion crowned by a matrimonial union, have all their prospects blasted for a time, by the dark intrigues of a Miss More. Lord Edwin is led to believe that Miss Altam purposed to marry him merely from the views of interest, though her affections were unalterably fixed on another; and Miss Altam is persuaded, from appearances, that Lord Edwin never had any serious intentions of marriage. This, as usual, produces sighs, tears, complaints, melancholy, sickness, &c. &c. The gloom by degrees is dispelled. Miss More is detected, and matrimony and happiness bring the novel to a conclusion. The detached account of the Blank family, as it has nothing to do with the story, can serve no purpose but that of swelling the work to two volumes.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

ACADEMICAL NEWS.

Among the numerous curiosities which have excited the admiration of the present age, we recollect none more extraordinary than that which we are enabled to lay before our Readers, by the politeness of a gentleman, to whom we have been before indebted, and whose ardour in promoting the circulation of useful knowledge is known and respected through Europe.

THE late convulsions and disturbances which had nearly brought the Imperial Academy of sciences at Peterburgh to its dissolution, and which originated in the misconduct and arbitrary proceedings of the Vice President, Mr. Domaschneuv, induced the northern Semiramis to attempt the removal of evils, which threatened to put a total stop to the progress of science in the metropolis, and consequently in the whole empire. In order to effect so desirable a purpose, her Imperial Majesty appointed to the presidency a person, who is acknowledged to confer the highest honour on the fair sex, and whose great abilities, and profound knowledge in many branches of science, have been seen and admired in several parts of Europe. This was no other than the celebrated Princess Dashkoff, the same, who came to reside at Edinburgh a few years ago, for the purpose of personally inspecting the education of the young prince, her son, and is now returned to her native country, after visiting (in 1781,) the best provinces of England, France, Italy, &c. not in search of oddities, baubles, butterflies, and the like useless and ridiculous objects of modern pursuit; but in

in order to make herself acquainted with the most eminent men in every department of learning, and to examine whatever was capable of suggesting useful knowledge, and affording real instruction: hence she did not traverse unpolished and barbarous countries, since what she sought, was only to be found in the most civilized nations.

This very distinguished personage lately entered upon her new charge, at a full assembly of the Imperial Academy, at which many of the first nobility were present. On this occasion she delivered a very elaborate and pertinent discourse, in a manner that gave universal satisfaction, and obtained the most unbounded applause. During the solemnity there happened an accident, trifling in itself, but which served at once to display in the most striking manner, the attention and presence of mind of the new President. The old and venerable prince of European mathematicians, the famous Leonard Euler, being at a loss on account of his blindness, where to direct his steps, in order to take his seat as a veteran in the assembly, the President immediately perceived his embarrassment, and addressing herself to him, with that peculiar delicacy which so conspicuously adorns the female sex, Monsieur, said she, “vous aurez la bonté de vous placer, on vous voulez; la place, que vous occupez ici, est toujours la première.” “Sir, have the goodness to sit down where ever you chuse; the place which you occupy here, will always be the first.”

This is, I believe, the first instance of the appointment of a lady to an academical presidency in Europe. But who in the present age can be so destitute of reflection as not to be fully convinced that our superiority over the fair sex in point of those abilities and qualifications that are requisite to the cultivation of science, and the conduct of affairs is not merely imaginary, or assumed without foundation, after so many examples of illustrious women, as are recorded both in ancient and modern history, particularly after witnessing in our own times, the glorious reign of Catherine the Great, of Russia, that unparalleled lawgiver of the north, who displays through her extensive dominions such beneficent rays of wisdom, and who shews in all her public actions, such powers of mind, such liberal principles of government, and such exertions of humanity, fortitude, and other royal virtues, as leave far behind the most striking examples that ever were recorded in the annals of mankind.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

THEATRE.

A GREENABLE to our promise of last month, we shall here attempt some sketches of the theatrical talents of Mrs. Siddons, and since rigid impartiality is, or should be, the essence of criticism, we are happy to observe the public so uniform in their admiration of her, lest we should otherwise have been suspected of writing a panegyric; instead of delivering the pure dictates of unbiassed judgement.

It is a reiterated assertion among such as affect to despise what they call the mob, that the public are occasionally seized with a kind of mania, and run in crowds while the frenzy lasts, predetermined to praise what they cannot comprehend. But this accusation is only true in part. The small talk of society it is true, is always imitative: it affirms, but does not investigate; it sees, admires, and commends, not as reason, but, as fashion prescribes. It is the tongue of understanding however that gives the tone to the affirmations of folly, and whoever looks round, will easily perceive, that every man, in gradation, forms his opinions upon some one above him, whose judgement he has often experienced to be better than his own, and which he has therefore very rationally learnt to revere. Fools cannot bestow reputation; they are themselves despised, and their remarks, when false, would be heard only to be ridiculed. Whence we may conclude when the praise is universal, the merit is real, and that those people who affect to condemn what all the world approves, have either erected a false standard of taste for themselves, or contradict for the sake of being singular. If this be true, as we are persuaded it is, the annals of the Theatre do not afford an instance of more universal approbation, consequently none of greater merit, than Mrs. Siddons. Garrick himself did not exceed, if he equalled her, in awaking public curiosity. When he first appeared the Theatres were small, if compared to the present, yet it is a known fact that the boxes have been all engaged every night, for a fortnight or more in advance, on those nights when it was supposed the would play, and this for a continuance, while the other parts of the house have as continually overflowed; nor is this avidity in the least abated. Let us endeavour by developing her excellencies to account for these extraordinary marks of public favour.

There never perhaps was a better stage figure seen than Mrs. Siddons. Her height is above the middle size; she is not at all inclined to the embonpoint, yet sufficiently muscular, to prevent all appearances of asperity, or acute angles in the varieties of action, or the display of attitude; the symmetry of her person is captivating; her face is peculiarly happy, by having a strength of features without the least propensity to coarseness or vulgarity; on the contrary, it is so well harmonized when quiescent, and so expressive when impassioned, that most people think her more beautiful than she is. So great too is the flexibility of her countenance, that it takes the instantaneous transitions of passion, with such variety and effect, as never to tire the eye. Her voice is remarkably plaintive, yet capable of all that firmness and exertion which the intrepidity of fortitude,

titude, or the impulse of sudden rage demand. Her eye is large and marking, and her brow capable of contracting to disdain, or dilating with the emotions of sympathy or pity; her memory is tenacious, and her articulation clear, distinct, and penetrating.

That nature might not be partially bountiful, she has endowed her with a quickness of conception and a strength of understanding, equal to the proper use of such extraordinary gifts. So entirely is she mistress of herself, so collected, and so determined in her gestures, tone, and manner, that she seldom errs like other actors, because she doubts her powers or comprehension: she studies her Author attentively, conceives justly, and describes with a firm consciousness of propriety; she is sparing in her action, because nature, (at least English nature,) does not act much, but it is proper, picturesque, graceful, and dignified; it arises immediately from the sentiments and feelings, and is not seen to prepare itself before it begins. No studied trick or start can be predicted, no forced tremulation, where the vacancy of the eye declares the absence of passion, can be seen; no laborious strainings at false climax, in which the tired voice reiterates one high tone beyond which it cannot reach, can be heard; no artificial heaving of the breasts, so disgusting when the affectation is perceptible; none of those arts, by which the actress is seen, and not the character, can be found in Mrs. Siddons. So natural are her gradations and transitions, so classical and correct her speech and deportment, and so exceedingly affecting and pathetic are her voice, form, and features, that there is no conveying an idea of the pleasure she communicates by words. She must be seen to be admired. What is still more delightful, she is an original; she copies no one living or dead, but acts from nature and herself.

This is general praise, let us take a more particular view of her powers in some of those characters in which she has so repeatedly charmed the town.

Her first appearance was in *Isabella in the Fatal Marriage*, a play in which one of our greatest poets has produced some of his most happy effusions. There is not perhaps in the range of dramatic writing a more difficult character to support with justice than that of *Isabella*. Her settled melancholy for the loss of *Biron*, her distressful poverty, her sorrows at the cruelty of her incensed father-in-law, her maternal fears, and her reluctant acceptance of *Villeroy*, may be represented by abilities inferior to those of Mrs. Siddons, though not with that fullness of effect; but the intervals of sanity and distraction that succeed, are so various, numerous, and perplexed, that nothing but the utmost efforts of genius and of art can exhibit *Isabella* in all her thousand horrors. Any thing below excellence must be contemptible, and therefore it is with great justice that the critics have pronounced this to be her chef d'œuvre. Great talents are always most conspicuous where great obstacles are to be surmounted.

If there be any who still affect to doubt the superiority of Mrs. Siddons, who still affirm, they remember to have seen some one more excellent, let them examine her *Isabella*, let them behold her looking at *Biron* in disguise, let them listen to her soliloquy when he leaves her, let them hear her repeat

What's

What's to be done?—for something must be done—

Two husbands! yet not one! by both enjoy'd,

And yet a wife to neither! hold my brain.—

And again,

I am contented to be miserable

But not this way,—&c.

Let them observe during her progressions to madness, with what distinct shades sanity and reason are depicted, let them behold her frenzy increase till she attempts to stab her husband, let them watch the inexpressible anguish of her looks, while she clings to his body when dead, let them view her in her last agonies give her laugh of horror, for having at last escaped from such inhuman persecutors and insupportable miseries, and then while their passions are warm, let them declare who is her equal.

In Jane Shore the same regard to propriety, to character, situation, and sentiment is preserved. We have heard it affirmed, that she mistakes the first part of this character, that she is too full of grief, and exhibits too strong a picture of melancholy, but this was evidently a hasty and ill formed criticism. Gloster and Lord Hastings before she appears describe her fully.

L. Hast. —I am to move your highness in behalf,
Of Shore's unhappy wife.

Gloff.

Say you of Shore.

L. Hast: Once a bright star that held her place on high,
The first and fairest of our English dames,
While royal Edward held the sovereign rule,
Now sunk in grief and pining in despair;
Her waining form no longer shall incite,
Envy in woman, or desire in man;
She never sees the sun but thro' her tears,
And wakes to sigh the live long night away.

Gloff. Marry the times are badly chang'd with her
From Edwards days to these: then all was jollity,
Feasting and mirth, light wantonness and laughter;
Piping and playing, minstrelsy and masquing,
Till life fled from us like an idle dream,
A shew of mummery without a meaning.

This quotation will prove how attentively Mrs. Siddons had studied her Author, when she gave rise to the above ill judged decision, and every sentence in her first scene is a confirmation that she was right. The whole character is indeed little more than a penitentiary repetition of past crimes, as the source of present misfortunes, till the fourth act, in which Jane Shore is tempted by Gloster to betray King Edward's children, and we never beheld Mrs. Siddons in this scene, without increasing admiration. From her performance of Isabella and Belvidera, we were convinced how powerfully she could inspire pity and terror, but her Grecian daughter and Jane Shore, convinced every beholder how perfectly she was mistress of the sublime as well as of the pathetic. Never were gratitude, patriotism, and disregard of partial selfish feelings better conceived or better expressed, than by Mrs. Siddons, after Gloster has told her that

Hastings

Hastings opposes those who wish to deprive the orphan prince of the crown, when she exclaims—

J. Sh.—Does he? does Hastings!

Gloster.—

Ay Hastings,

J. Sh. Reward him for the noble deed just Heaven,
For this one action guard him and distinguish him
With signal mercies and with great deliverance,
Save him from wrong adversity and shame,
Let never fading honours flourish round him
And consecrate his name even to time's end;
Let him know nothing else but good on earth,
And everlasting blessedness hereafter.

She does not as we have seen others, stay to cast a look of contempt at Gloster, her whole soul is intent upon the generosity of Hastings, and her affection for her prince; all other sensations are so totally absorbed, and these are poured forth in such a rapture of dignified enthusiasm, that the spectator forgets while she is speaking, the danger she incurs. There never was a Gloster but must appear insignificant by the side of Mrs. Siddons, notwithstanding all his threats, while she says

Oh! that my tongue had every grace of speech,
Great and commanding as the breath of kings;
Sweet as the poets numbers and prevailing
As soft persuasion to a lovesick maid,
That I had art and eloquence divine,
To pay my duty to my master's ashes,
And plead till death the cause of injured innocence.

Her fortitude if possible increases, and becomes equal to the strongest exertions of the strongest mind, after Gloster's denunciation of vengeance, when she thus devotes herself to misery, rather than abandon her gratitude and loyalty.

Let me be branded for the public scorn,
Turn'd forth and driven to wander like a vagabond;
Be friendless and forsaken, seek my bread
Upon the barren, wild, and desolate waste,
Feed on my sighs, and drink my falling tears,
Ee'r I consent to teach my lips injustice,
Or wrong the orphan who has none to save him.

Her resignation is so perfect, so determined, and so sublime, her tone of voice so firm, yet free from rant, her action so unconsciously noble, and her deportment so void of all ostentatious self-applause, perceptible either in the player as speaking well, or the woman as acting with superiority, that we think we behold absolute perfection, both in the actress and the character. It is not the declamation of study, the display of attitudes, or the stride of assumed dignity by which we are charmed, but those exact and forcible expressions of feeling that stamp reality on fiction, and make it no longer an imitation but a truth.

And here we cannot but recommend to those gentlemen who do at present, or hope hereafter to perform Hastings, (as well as those young ladies, who shall make similar attempts on Jane Shore,) to observe with the utmost degree of assiduity, by what means Mrs.

Siddons

Siddons excels in this scene. Did they do so, we surely should no longer see Hastings in a scene, equal, if not superior, with respect to writing and theatrical advantages, depend alone on the strength of his voice for applause; we should then see these performers emulative only to give a superior energy of fortitude instead of vociferation. We should no longer consider them as Actors but as Heroes, when they say,

On this foundation will I build my fame,
And emulate the Greek and Roman name,
Think England's peace bought cheaply with my blood,
And die with pleasure for my country's good.

We read in the papers that a deputation had been sent to Mrs. Siddons, requesting her to speak in a more enfeebled tone in the last scene of *Jane Shore*. Whether such deputation was or was not sent, is not our business to enquire; but as there is some justice in the criticism, we shall, for the entertainment of our Reader's curiosity, examine how far it is practicable in stage exhibition. That a woman emaciated with extreme hunger and in the agonies of death, should be able to speak so loud, we can readily allow to be almost impossible, and so it is that she should speak so much, or that she should continue to traverse the streets so immediately before she dies. But these seem rather to be among the necessary defects of imitation, in which fiction is obliged to allow its inferiority to fact, and in which the Poet and the Performer are at least to be excused if not justified, than of that kind that criticism by discovering, may reform. Had *Jane Shore* been shewn on the stage as feeble and helpless as she actually was, when expiring for want of food, her words must have been few, her action none, and her voice not audible; but the Poet wanted to express her thoughts, and the Actress to be heard: to effect which, some improbabilities are perhaps inevitable. We will grant, however, that the weaker the voice, the more natural is the Player, provided she be entirely heard; but this is the first consideration, and to this every other must give place.

In the Grecian Daughter Mrs. Siddons displays the nobler passions in a still more eminent degree: the characteristic virtues of Euphrasia are fortitude and filial piety, and of these she gives the strongest and most permanent picture. To cite every passage in which she is excellent, would be endless; but there are two in which she rises so much above expectation, that not to note them would be unjust. The first is when she supposes her father murdered by Philotas.

And dost thou then, inhuman that thou art,
Advise a wretch like me to know repose?
This is my last abode—these caves, these rocks,
Shall ring for ever with Euphrasia's wrongs:
All Sicily shall hear me—Yonder deep,
Shall echo back an injured daughter's cause.
Here will I dwell, and rave, and shriek, and give
These scattered locks to all the passing winds;
Call on Evander lost, and pouring curses,
And cruel Gods and cruel stars invoking,
Stand on the cliff in madness and despair.

In the recitation of this speech, Mrs. Siddons is so perfectly what she describes, she raves and shrieks in accents so piercing and so loud, that the Spectator supplies all the other circumstances: he imagines all Sicily actually hears her, and that he sees her standing on the cliff in madness and despair!

The other is in the fourth act, where Dionysius requires her to draw off her husband Phocion and his powers from the siege; to which she replies,

Think'st thou then

So meanly of my Phocion? Dost thou deem him
Poorly wound up to a mere fit of valour
To melt away in a weak woman's tear?
Oh thou dost little know him.

Her manner of saying *Oh thou dost little know him*, conveys so consummate an idea of an elevated mind, that every one who hears her is persuaded she is perfectly capable in real life of acting the part she here only personates, and they admire the woman even more than the actress. When we say every one, we would be understood to mean every one of those who are themselves susceptible of the like sentiments.

We shall pass over her agitation while she fears Philotas has at last betrayed her father, and the manner of her stabbing the tyrant, as we must many more beauties, and make a few observations on her in the Fair Penitent.

Nothing, perhaps, gives more permanent satisfaction from Poet, Painter, or Player, than when they perfectly assume the *manners* of the persons they represent; and in this Mrs. Siddons is particularly happy. Her look, her step, her gestures, vary with the character. In Isabella her behaviour is meekness and resignation to unmerited misfortunes; in Jane Shore lowliness and contrition for past offences; in the Grecian Daughter that true dignity which a conscious strength of mind and rectitude of action naturally inspires, is every where prevalent; and in Calista that haughty affectation of being above controul, which a deviation from virtue ever produces in a great but proud mind. She walks with greater precipitation, her gestures are more frequent and more violent, her eyes are restless and suspicious, pride and shame are struggling for superiority, and guilt is in the contraction of her brow. We think however, that in her scene with Horatio in the third act, the night we saw her, she fell into an error by no means usual with her; she discovered too much rage in the first part of the scene, and thus formed an anticlimax: but perhaps this was casual. Her general performance of the part is superlative, and the speech where she stabs herself is above description terrible in the utterance. It is immediately after the entrance of Horatio, who comes to tell her of her father's death.

And dost thou bear me yet, thou patient earth?
Dost thou not labour with thy murder's weight?
And you ye glittering heav'nly host of stars,
Hide your fair heads in clouds or I shall blast you;
For I am all contagion, death, and ruin,
And nature sickens at me.—Rest thou world

This

This Parricide shall be thy plague no more.

Thus—thus I set thee free.

So perfect is her conception of the infamy of her crime and the horror of its consequences, and such is her detestation of herself and of the ruin she has induced, that we think it impossible for an innocent female to behold her agony, without feeling an additional dread of the like sin; or if she had begun to cherish vicious inclinations, not to be terrified from putting them in act. It is no hyperbole to say we congratulate the nation on the happy effects that are likely, at least for a time, to follow from its being so much the fashion among those of high rank to attend the performances of Mrs. Siddons. That they were degenerating into that laxity of manners which ridicules the ties of conjugal obligations, and the dictates of self denial, is too notorious to be disputed; there is now, we hope, a probability that they may be roused from their lethargy.

We cannot close this account of her characters without noticing the affecting and capital stile in which she plays the mad scene of Belvidera, and of this nothing can be a better proof, than when in the midst of her phrenzy, she breaks out into a laugh, we see the audience always burst into tears. The reality of her madness must be thoroughly impressed upon the mind, before laughter can incite a sensation so different as that of weeping. The manner likewise of her pronouncing the exclamation oh! in all passages where the passions are violently agitated, is one of her most marking beauties, and peculiar to herself. Let us conclude with a few general observations, which may point out to others the errors they are liable to, and the excellencies it is their duty to emulate.

We have before spoken of the attention which Mrs. Siddons pays to the manners, and we repeat the observation, to shew the necessity of this attention by its effects. All who excel as Artists, Poets, or Critics pay the strictest regard to consistency, and the production of a whole. Whoever neglects or slightly regards this, is in continual danger of offending. The idea of a whole must extend itself as carefully to each distinct part of a performance, as to the work collectively. Incongruities give disgust in a proportionate degree as they deviate from truth and reality. The Actor who at his entrance is seen to stare about, or even to take what he may suppose an unobserved peep, that he may examine how many of his acquaintance he can discover in the pite and boxes, loses sight not only of character but of respect, and deserves a severe reprehension. Yet this is done at our theatres every night with an astonishing assurance. Whatever reminds the Spectator that he is at the playhouse, and that Rosincraus and Guildenstern are not the school-fellows of Hamlet, but two silly youngsters who have taken up the profession of an actor, because they are idle, and not because they are ambitious, brings to his remembrance several disagreeable circumstances all at once, and inspires him with a portion of contempt for Messieurs Rosincraus and Guildenstern, of which were they aware, they would certainly behave with more propriety and caution. Nor is this censure aimed at or confined to individuals; the fault is so common, that there are but very few who are not sometimes guilty of it. This evil is of the same species with that of the Actors person-

nal jokes and laughter on the stage among each other, concerning which we spoke in our last number; and of these we must say, in the language of Adam Overdo*, "It is time to take enormity by the forehead and brand it." Another very common and very great stage error is, the inattention with which Actors are apt to treat not only the general business of the play, but the very characters with whom they are speaking. If a letter be to be thrown down on the ground, the Actor scorns to lower his dignity so far as to stoop and take it up again; the scene-man must enter to do such common drudgery: no matter that it contains secrets of the utmost importance, and that the person he represents could not possibly be so careless about things on which his happiness or even life may depend. If a duel be to be fought, the hat is thrown away, for the sake of shewing, as we suppose, with what a grace it may be done, and not because men always throw away their hats when they fight duels: and when some good-natured friend comes to part them, they disdain as much to pick up a hat as a letter, chusing rather to walk a few miles bareheaded. And here we may farther remark, that the sight of a drawn sword has very little or no effect on the countenance of a player; death is rather a serious concern when it makes such *near* approaches, to all people else; but as the property-man keeps neither three-edged nor two-edged swords in his possession, but a set of blunt, harmless weapons, that scorn with any force of arm to penetrate as far as the skin, the actor very logically concludes, it would be a folly to shew fear since he is certain there is no danger. He is likewise apt to discover an equal degree of contempt concerning the purport of the dialogue. It is none of his business to notice what other people say, if he, in Othello's phrase, do but "know his cue without the prompter." That is, what he is to watch for, and not to give any signs of anxiety or concern, at the reasons, threats, or promises of a person, who like him, is only come there to say his lesson. The proverb says, "every dog has his day," and again, "he that sharply chides is the most ready to pardon," both of which we often see verified on the stage, where each actor takes his turn to make a speech, and be *very* angry, and then—to hold his tongue, and be *very* cool. And thus the alternate buckets come and go; the empty one descends, while the full one is wound up. The different passions that might be supposed once to have taken place in the minds, and been apparent in the countenances of the Roman mob, when Anthony harangued over the dead body of Cæsar, are nothing to a player; he neither knows, nor wants to know any thing about such matters. He is certain, Cæsar's legacies will never descend to him or his heirs; he never saw the Tiber, nor was he ever in the walks, the private arbors, or the new planted orchards, that Anthony talks of: *he stands there to speak his part*. If, indeed, he can make his friends in the gallery laugh at the quaintness of his dress, or the drollery of his grimace, while Anthony is deploring the fate of his mighty master, that is a deed worthy his ambition, but as for the real manner in which it

* See Ben Johnson's Bartholomew fair.

may be conjectured the plebeians of Rome actually behaved on that occasion, it is a thing he never once thought of.

We have spoken thus ironically of glaring, though common improprieties, that the Reader may recollect, with the greater degree of force, the precision and accuracy of good performers, and especially of Mrs. Siddons. Her eyes never wander, her passions are as active while she is silent as when she is speaking, she is not Belvidera this moment, and Mrs. Siddons the next, but she is Belvidera always. She does not stab herself, as if she were sheathing her scissars in heroics. She does not continually make her exit with a strut or expire with a groan ; but her manner varies with her situation. She conjures up the ghost of the character she personates, beholds it with the piercing eye of strong imagination, and embodies the phantom.

We shall speak in our next of the comic performers of Drury-lane, and then proceed to the other Theatre.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

(Continued from our last.)

IT is evident, from the history of all free states, that peace abroad, is naturally productive of domestic discord. This maxim in politics is not fulfilled by the present state of Great Britain. For if the clamours of faction were louder, during the last, than in any former war, they are also louder in the present, than they ever have been, in any former period of peace. But here it is necessary to remark, that there is a difference between *faction* founded on animosity and interest; and *faction* founded on sentiment, principle, or conviction. It is the first of these only that properly deserves the name of *faction*, and it is to this only that we allude, when we affirm, that the voice of faction is louder at the present, than it has ever been in any former period of the *British* history. For as to the second species of *faction*, it may be justly affirmed, that never was real political principle less clamorous in the British Senate, than it is at the present moment. In former periods the representatives of the people contended for the rights and privileges of free men; and disputed whether the sovereign power should remain in the royal line of Stuart, or be transferred to the House of Brunswick. But what is the mighty object of the present din and bustle? What right of the people has been invaded by the crown? Are any ideas entertained of altering the regal succession? No! the general voice of the nation replies, God forbid! But some will affirm, that the silent lapse of time, which induces revolution and change into every machine, and every object, has marred and corrupted the constitution of the British government. The influence of the crown, they will maintain, according to the *cant* of the three last years, has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished: and this they will say, is an object worthy of the efforts of a virtuous patriot and statesman.

To effect this object, a junction was formed between the forces of the Marquis of Rockingham and the Earl of Shelburne. Their united strength was irresistible, and had public reformation been indeed the object of their views, they would have carried on their improvements, according to the language of some, or their attacks on the constitution, according to that of others, without any material interruption. Success in the great and important outwork, which all of them pretended to have so much at heart, would have allayed every little jealousy and dissatisfaction, would have formed a concert of wills and affections, and would have united those political adventurers in bonds of mutual forbearance, at least, if not of sincere and cordial friendship. A very short time, however, produced an open rupture between the united squadrons: nor were public zeal, and a common cause able to prolong their connection. Their coalition arose from their common hostility to Lord North, and it ceased when that Minister was no longer irresistible. The contest between Shelburne and Fox was grounded not on political principles, but on private interest and ambition: and these antagonists, sacrificing the public welfare,

welfare, appeared equally solicitous to establish their power by the same means: a precipitate, unsafe, and inglorious peace. Yet Mr. Fox, who knelt, in lowly reverence, to the Americans and to the Dutch, *confessing the sins of his people*, even he could arraign the pacification of Paris in February last, and loudly lament the fallen glory of the British nation. It was but a few months before, that he had declared he would not sit alone with Lord North, in the same room: and that his lordship retaliated so rude an attack, by glancing at the private profligacy of his blunt opponent. A common resentment against Lord Shelburne has, for the present united these powerful adversaries, and their eloquence and political talents, so formidable to each other, when in a state of mutual hostility, inspire them now with mutual confidence.

But is it possible, that even the extravagance of hope, and of confidence in their own good fortune, can so far blind the eyes of such enlightened statesmen, as to persuade them that they still retain the undiminished confidence of their respective parties? To what principle of patriotism are we to ascribe such fluctuation? Is there any other solution of this *phenomenon* more obvious, more natural, more just than that which is in every body's mouth, *they are scrambling for the loaves and fishes*? Let us however allow due weight to Mr. Fox's argument, in defence of this coalition. It was necessary says he, to unite with Lord North, because it was impossible to form an administration from the *Portland* faction that would not be in a minority in Parliament. The whigs chose, in this extremity to join a party whom they had uniformly accused of *Jacobitism*; Jacobitism of the very worst kind*, rather than to adhere to men whose principles were so consonant to their own, with respect to the great and important questions, relative to the reformation of the constitution, and the independence of America. Is not this a political paradox, if we suppose the faction alluded to, to be governed by pure political speculation? But does it not appear perfectly natural, if we suppose them to be governed by private passion, not a regard to the public welfare. Lord North, it seems, is contented with a subordinate share of power: Lord Shelburne and the Chancellor fly at higher game; and this is the mystery that has for several weeks astonished the world.

It is not more true that our political adventurers are governed by private and selfish views, than that their selfishness has now very generally become apparent to the nation. Their revolutions are too barefaced: their professions are too glaringly impudent. The well known venality of the different combinations of men, that impede and disturb the operations of government, is doubtless a circumstance which encourages a disposition in the persons most favoured by the crown, to defend the royal prerogative against the encroachments of popular violence. Did parliament, as in former times,

* In an attachment to the person of the Pretender, said Mr. Fox, there was something generous; but the Jacobitism of Lord North and his adherents is pure, unmixed, and diabolical Jacobitism. It is *abstracted* Jacobitism; Jacobitism of the worst kind. This he affirmed in 1781.

possess the confidence of the people, it would be as little in the power, as we must suppose, it is in the inclination of those who surround the throne, to form an administration by the mere exercise of the royal prerogative. But is it to be wondered, that amidst the shameful fluctuations of venal parties, uniting to-day, and dissolving to-morrow, the advisers of his Majesty should dare to think of composing a ministry not from one, but from different factions.

The time does not seem far distant, when exalted ambition and genius on the throne might shake the liberties of the people. If corruption and venality should advance with as hasty strides as they have done, of late years; and if the people's confidence in parliament should continue to decay in a similar proportion, it is possible that in some remote period, it might not always be "the sincerest disposition of the Prince on the throne, to comply with the wishes of his faithful Commons."

Europe, in the present era, beholds with admiration a sovereign prince of the most splendid military and political talents, whose generals are only his aids de camp, and whose ministers are in reality no other than his clerks. Should such a character hold the reins of the British government; military renown, largesses to the soldiery, professions and acts of tenderness towards the people, might enable him in a corrupt and degenerate age, to unhinge the political constitution of his country.

It is a subject of consolation to the English people, that such attempts are not to be dreaded from the virtues, and inoffensive genius of the House of Brunswick: yet it cannot but appear obvious to every reasoner, that the liberty of this country is intimately connected with its virtue.

Open licentiousness and tumult are scarcely less inimical to public freedom, than secret bribery and corruption. Licentiousness produces anarchy, and anarchy leads to despotism. The laxation of the British government, the example of America and Ireland, the county associations, the divisions in parliament; these have engendered a spirit of mutiny in the army and navy, as well as a boldness, and a tendency to political disobedience in different classes of the people. The present month has added to the symptoms of this disorder in the state, the mutinies at Portsmouth, and the unfortunate affair between the regiments in Jersey. While the business of government is at a stand, and a combination of factions in the House of Commons, dictates a choice of ministers, there are not wanting numbers of men who are still alarmed at the undue influence of the Crown. The spirit of association is, however, somewhat damped. It is impossible but men must perceive that the royal prerogative begins to *suffer violence, and that the violent, endeavour to take it by force.*

The spirit of reformation has extended itself from the state to a few individuals in the church. The Bishop of Llandaff recom-

* The answer from the Crown to the address of the Commons, Wednesday the 26th March 1783.

mends a reduction of the revenues of the bishops, and an increase of the stipends of the poor inferior clergy. There is nothing in this plan, but what appears reasonable: but it is probable that a very great majority of Dr. Watson's brethren will be of opinion, that it would be very improper to tamper with the ecclesiastical constitution.

In the midst of the internal distractions, which have been mentioned in this political sketch, business of the most important nature demands the attention of government. A total alteration must be made in the trade laws of this country, and a peace is to be concluded with the Dutch. Business more complicated or difficult never certainly came before parliament. How is it possible to frame a code of commercial laws, that shall at once be satisfactory to the Americans, to the people of England, and their friends and allies? The advantages accorded to the Americans, may prove a source of jealousy and discontent to the Russians and Danes, and the trading towns on the Baltick. It will be difficult to make such arrangements respecting Portugal, as shall at once be satisfactory to the Irish nation and the English. The pride and the enterprize of the Americans will, in the space of a few years, carry them to the East-Indies, nor will England be forward to check the progress of their growing commerce. But shall the Americans be permitted to trade with India, and even to pour Indian goods into England, while the Irish are prohibited? And if the tameness of Britain shall connive at the adventurers in India, both of America and Ireland, are the merchants of England to be excluded from the same advantages? The dissolution of the English East India Company, it is to be feared, will be among the disastrous effects of that loss of reputation and power, which has degraded us in the scale of nations. And, as our East-India trade is the grand fund that enables us to pay the interest of the national debt, a national bankruptcy would soon follow the ruin of the East-India Company.

It is possible however that timely prudence, vigour, and unanimity in the British councils, may avert or protract so great misfortune. Concord at home and wise alliances and vigorous conduct abroad, may sustain, for some time, the falling fortunes of England. History at once affords ground to dread those calamities, and to confide in these remedies. After the famous truce of twelve years that was established in 1609, in the feeble reign of PHILIP III, between the Spaniards and the Dutch, the dominions of the former were attacked in the Indies, their authority was opposed in Italy, and the United States, elated with victory, and the pride of recent independence, began to extend their conquests along the Rhine, the progress of which would have ravished from Spain the whole of the Netherlands. Such were the effects which in the short space of five years, resulted from the loss of national fame! but, on these emergencies, an unusual spirit of vigour appeared in the councils of Spain. A Spanish army was opposed to the Dutch, and the progress of Prince Maurice was timeously checked by the Marquis of Spinola. An alliance by marriage gave the Spaniards an influence in the councils of France, and an offensive as well as defensive league between the Courts of Vienna and Madrid, retrieved the honour

honour of Spain, and revived her glory among the nations. Human nature is the same in all ages and nations; and although it is difficult to predict the conduct or the fortune of an individual, it is not always impossible to foretell the conduct and the fate of nations. The Spanish history holds out to Great Britain these important instructions. 1. Political concessions engender political demands, and warlike attacks. England may therefore expect that North America will soon make encroachments on what yet remains of her foreign dependencies. 2. In such a case it will be the interest of Great Britain to oppose the first appearances of such encroachments with vigour, and to form such alliances as may counterbalance that loss of reputation which she has sustained in the eyes of the world.

At present, the principle which seems to predominate in the British councils is an immoderate love of peace. By striving to please all parties, ministers are in danger of pleasing none. They wish to conciliate the good will of America, of Russia, of Ireland, of Holland, of France. This obsequious pusillanimity may consist with peace, while the enemies of Great Britain find it necessary to breathe from the toils of war; but it is more vigorous conduct, and more extensive views that can alone ensure *a lasting peace*.

While the English nation pursues these pacific measures with eagerness, an ignorance of the nature and extent of the treaties that have undoubtedly been ratified between America and Holland, and America and France throws ridicule upon their proceedings, and exposes them to the laughter as well as the contempt of these nations. What is commonly reported appears in no wise incredible: that the pusillanimous conduct, and internal distractions of Britain, have determined the Dutch to rise in their demands in the treaty of peace, and induced the French to keep on foot the greater part of their military force, in expectation of finding an opportunity of striking some new blow, and reaping some new advantages.

The emigrations which have been so often foretold, have begun to take place, both in Great Britain and Ireland; and add to the gloom which hangs over this falling empire.

The small republic of Geneva resumes its wonted quiet and industry: Russia, the Emperor, and the Turks, are still in what General Conway would call a *whimsical situation*; and every day brings fresh proofs of the truth of the predictions concerning the downfall of the Pope.

It is probable that in our review of politics *for the month of April* we shall find subjects for speculation in a new arrangement of Ministry, and in accounts of the effects which the very pacific and humble disposition of England has produced on the minds of the United Provinces of North America. Until such accounts shall arrive it will remain uncertain whether the conduct of England has inspired them with gratitude, or inflamed them (which in our opinion is the most probable conjecture) with ideas of pride and ambition.

THE ENGLISH REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1783.

ART. I. *The Art of Painting of Charles Alphonse du Fresnoy* :
Translated into English Verse by W. Mason, M. A. With
Annotations, by Sir Joshua Reynolds, Kt. President of the
Royal Academy. 4to. 8s. boards. Doddsley.

IT was with some degree of surprize that we beheld Mr. Mason, who has been called the “first of living bards,” appear as a translator. That he should have descended from the higher regions of poetry, the fairy ground of invention, creation, to the humble walk of translation, is sufficiently extraordinary; but that he should have made choice of a modern, dull, preceptive poem, for the exercise of his talents, is still more wonderful. On this Poem, however, Mr. Mason, as he informs us, has “lavished much pains.” The version, as it is now offered to the public, is the work of many years. It was begun “in very early youth,” received the corrections of his friend Mr. Gray, and appears at last, after a most scrupulous revisal, where “hardly a “single line” was left without what was “thought an emendation, improved (as the Author says) to the utmost of “my mature abilities.” Without entering into the question, whether it was worth while to bestow so much labour on the transmutation of Fresnoy’s lead into English gold, we shall only say that, upon the whole, the attempt has been crowned with success. Mr. Mason’s translation will be read with more pleasure than the original: the hard and dry manner of the latter, to borrow a metaphor from the subject of the poem, is melted into ease and freedom in the former. The Translator has

“Drest
“The Muse of Fresnoy in a modern vest.”

which, though it adds considerably to her size*, yet, at the same time, gives her a gracefulness that she did not formerly possess. Not but that some passages smell of the lamp, and discover *that labour* which it is the perfection of art to conceal. This is perhaps a fault which is more or less discernible in most of our Author's productions.

The subject of this Poem renders it difficult to produce an extract that will be relished by the generality of our Readers. The following passage, where the Author lays down rules for the conduct of painters, may be more suitable to the public taste than any other part of the work, and will at once evince the pains that have been taken, and their success.

* To Temperance all our liveliest Powers we owe,
 She bids the Judgment wake, the Fancy flow ;
 For her the Artist shuns the fuming feast,
 The Midnight roar, the Bacchanalian guest, 670
 And seeks those softer opiates of the soul,
 The social circle, the diluted bowl ;
 Crown'd with the Freedom of a single life,
 He flies domestic din, litigious strife ;
 Abhors the noisy haunts of bustling trade, 675
 And steals serene to solitude and shade ;
 There calmly seated in his village bower,
 He gives to noblest themes the studious hour,
 While Genius, Practice, Contemplation join
 To warm his soul with energy divine : 680
 For paltry gold let pining Misers sigh,
 His soul invokes a nobler Deity ;
 Smit with the glorious Avarice of Fame,
 He claims no less than an immortal name :
 Hence on his Fancy just Conception shines, 685
 True Judgment guides his hand, true Taste refines ;
 Hence ceaseless toil, devotion to his art,
 A docile temper, and a generous heart ;
 Docile, his sage Preceptor to obey,
 Generous, his aid with gratitude to pay, 690
 Blest with the bloom of youth, the nerves of health,
 And competence a better boon than wealth.
 Great Blessings these ! yet will not these empower
 His Tints to charm at every labouring hour :
 All have their brilliant moments, when alone 695
 They paint as if some star propitious shone.
 Yet then, ev'n then, the hand but ill conveys
 The bolder grace that in the Fancy plays :
 Hence, candid Critics, this sad Truth confess,
 Accept what least is bad, and deem it best & 700

* The original consists of 549, the translation of 798 lines.

Lament the soul in Error's thralldom held,
Compare Life's span with Art's extensive field,
Know that, ere perfect Taste matures the mind,
Or perfect practice to that Taste be join'd,
Comes age, comes sickness, comes contracting pain, 705
And chills the warmth of youth in every vein.

Rise then, ye youths ! while yet that warmth inspires,
While yet nor years impair, nor labour tires,
While health, while strength are yours, while that mild ray,
Which shone auspicious on your natal day, 710

Conducts you to Minerva's peaceful Quire,
Sons of her choice, and sharers of her fire,
Rise at the call of Art : expand your breast,
Capacious to receive the mighty guest,
While, free from prejudice, your active eye
Preserves its first unsullied purity ; 716

While new to Beauty's charms, your eager soul
Drinks copious draughts of the delicious whole,
And Memory on her soft, yet lasting page,
Stamps the fresh image which shall charm thro' age.

We cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of transcribing the following lines ; of which the four last are perhaps the most beautiful in the poem, from the happy application of the thought of Timanthes in his famous picture of the sacrifice of Iphigenia. Here too the Translator's merit is all his own, as there is nothing in the parallel passage of the original which is not flat and prosaic. Speaking of Greece, he says,

' 'Twas there the Goddess fixt her blest abodes,
There reign'd in Corinth, Athens, Sicyon, Rhodes.
Her various vot'ries various talents crown'd,
Yet each alike her inspiration own'd :
Witness those marble miracles of grace,
Those tests of symmetry where still we trace
All Art's perfection : With reluctant gaze 140
To these the Genius of succeeding days
Looks dazzled up, and, as their glories spread,
Hides in his mantle his diminish'd head.'

Though we have said that, upon the whole, Mr. Mason has succeeded in his translation, yet we shall notice some passages which, we think, have escaped the laborious attention paid to the original work. Telling us that painting confers immortality on Heroes, he says, l. 31, 32.

' Hence from the canvas, still, with wonted *state*,
He lives, he breaths, he braves the frowns of fate.'

We apprehend that the word *state* was here introduced merely for the sake of the rhyme, and that it conveys a burlesque and laughable idea. A hero may indeed *live with state*, though it is by no means essential to the character, but *to breathe with state, to brave the frowns of fate with state,*

376 *Mason's Translation of Du Fresnoy's Art of Painting.*

are surely singular modes of expression: they convey either no idea, or, if any, that of a very *strutting* hero indeed. Fresnoy says plainly and sensibly—

‘Magnanimis Heroibus inde superstes
Gloria,’

In the last of the four following lines, the “He” will be perceived to be redundant.

‘The fool to native ignorance confin’d,
No beauty beaming on his clouded mind,
Untaught to relish, yet too proud to learn,
He scorns the grace his dullness can’t discern.’

Had the verse run thus:

Scorns the bright grace his dullness can’t discern,
an additional force would perhaps have been added to the thought, and the solecism avoided.

‘Nor paint conspicuous on the foremost plain
Whate’er is false,’

120

The Translator has here missed the sense of the original, in which there is nothing equivalent to *false*. Whatever is *false* must neither be introduced into the fore-ground nor back-ground. The meaning of Fresnoy is obvious, that no trivial circumstances should occupy the most conspicuous part of the picture: and this is the sense that Sir Joshua Reynolds has affixed to it in the note. The “Whate’er is false,” of Mr. Mason, will apply to the preceding rule for preserving what the Italians call *costume*,

“Express the manners, customs, forms, and age,”
but it is quite out of its place where it now stands.

‘Relievs high that swell the column’s stem,

Speak from the marble, sparkle from the gem.’

257

As the Author is a connoisseur in painting, we suppose him too well acquainted with the sister arts to abide by the expression “Sparkle from the gem:” he must know that the beauties of a Cameo, the thing he is here describing, can only be discovered by the gem’s *not* sparkling. The four following lines are perfectly clear in the original. l. 268.

‘Quo magis adversum est corpus, lucique propinquum,
Clarius est lumen; nam debilitatur eundo.

Quo magis est corpus directum, oculisque propinquum,
Conspicitur melius; nam visus hebescit eundo.’

Fresnoy here informs us, that the light on objects near the luminous body is *brighter* than what is thrown on those at a distance from it, for light, (says he) is enfeebled by distance: and that objects near the eye are more *distinctly perceived* than more distant ones, because distance renders vision less perfect. Here are two distinct propositions clearly expressed, whereas the four corresponding lines in the translation are, at best, confused and obscure, and do not give the

the

the sense of the text. We shall produce them, and leave the public to judge. l. 367.

' Thus bodies near the light distinctly shine
With rays direct, and as it fades decline.

Thus to the eye oppos'd with stronger light
They meet its orb, for distance dims the light.'

We do not much approve of the word *decline*, when applied to bodies becoming more obscure as the light decreases. Had Mr. Mason written in prose, we should not have met with it in this sense.

These are some of the mistakes we have discovered on the perusal of this work; which in a less popular Author might have been passed over without much risk to the public taste. But, as in morals, crimes become more dangerous from the situation of the criminal, and the influence that his example may have on mankind; so, in matters of taste, the errors of a favourite writer should be particularly attended to, as their passing current may have the worst of consequences. We had almost forgot to add, that instead of following Fresnoy in his political conclusion, instead of adding more politics of his own, which he has done, the Translator ought to have avoided such a heterogeneous mixture, and the poem should have concluded with,

' Whence Art, by practice, to perfection soars.' 772

To this work Mr. Mason has prefixed an epistle to Sir Joshua Reynolds, and subjoined Pope's beautiful epistle to Jervas, which perhaps it had been prudent to have omitted: the comparison that unavoidably takes place is not favourable to the former, though it is far from wanting merit. Mentioning that masterly performance in his own epistle, he has the following lines, which suffer when contrasted with the ease and natural glow of the Twickenham Bard.

' How oft, on that fair shrine when Poets bind
The flowers of Song, does partial Passion blind
Their judgment's eye! How oft does Truth disclaim
The deed, and scorn to call it *genuine Fame*!

How did she here, when JERVAS was the theme,

Wast thro' the Ivory Gate the Poet's dream!

How view, indignant, Error's base alloy

The sterling lustre of his Praise destroy,

Which now, if Praise like his my Muse could coin,

Current thro' Ages, she would stamp for Thine.' p. 6.

It is sometimes dangerous to enter too minutely into metaphorical detail. The same metaphor that, when not dwelt upon, will give force and nobleness to the sentiment, may often debase it when expanded into circumstances. Of this we remember there

are some examples in the bathos. Something of this kind we presume may be objected to the two concluding lines of the passage we have quoted. The *Muse* is too mechanically employed when *coining current praise*. A ludicrous and handicraft picture is presented to the imagination, and the end of the poet, which was to elevate his thought by the splendour of diction, is defeated. Is not *cause* and *effect* confounded in the conclusion of the fourth line of our extract? The "deed of binding the flowers of song on the shrine of friendship," i. e. of commending our friends, cannot with propriety be called "*fame*:" this latter may indeed be the consequence of the former; but *praise*, the *cause*, and *fame*, the *effect*, should never be confounded, especially by an author who aspires to a scrupulous correctness. "Let pity *warm* thy tears" in the second line of the epistle, without treating it more harshly, may at least be pronounced a very affected way of expressing what is meant, viz. let compassion draw tears from your eyes.

We have now done with Mr. Mason's part of the work, and shall next present our Readers with some account of the Notes, which make no inconsiderable portion of this publication. In the Preface it is said,

"If the Text may have lost somewhat of its original merit, the Notes of Mr. DU PILES, which have hitherto accompanied it, have lost much more. Indeed it may be doubted whether they ever had merit in any considerable degree. Certain it is that they contain such a parade of common-place quotation, with so small a degree of illustrative science, that I have thought proper to expel them from this edition, in order to make room for their betters."

Some Readers may probably be surprized, after this, to find that the greater part of Sir Joshua's notes is to be found virtually in Du Piles. The thoughts are indeed conveyed with more perspicuity and elegance, and the lumber of quotation is removed, but the preceptive matter is essentially the same. The smallest recollection must convince us that this could not be otherwise. At the time that Du Piles wrote, painting had arrived at the highest degree of perfection, and the theory of the art was well understood: let us then grant to the Frenchman only industry and common-sense, which he seems to have possessed, and we shall remain satisfied that novelty of precept, to any extent, was not *now* to be expected. We are far from meaning to say by this, that there is nothing in the present notes which is not to be found in the French Commentator: on the contrary, we have met with many ingenious observations, which evince the taste and judgment of the Annotator, and to which Du Piles has no claim: yet still we maintain, after an accurate examination, that in him is to be found a great part

part of that "illustrative science," which Sir Joshua has now given to the public.

Among the notes which are more conspicuously the property of the President of the Royal Academy, the most considerable are, N. 37. *On the colouring and composition of the ancients*. N. 39. *On light and shade*. N. 43. *On the various styles of colouring*. N. 54. *Raffaello, Mich. Angelo, and Julio Romano*. And N. 56. *On the study and imitation of nature*. In all of them great knowledge of the art, and an exquisite taste are discernible; and prove that the Author is deservedly at the head of the British School.

In N. 54. he enquires whether a strict imitation of the colouring of nature, or what is termed *deception*, would be an additional merit in the heroic, or grand style of painting, and decides the question in the negative, because it would give too much "individuality" to the work. We think this decision rather *hazardous*, though it has the sanction of several Masters and Connoisseurs. It appears to us that, as painters are obliged to give human forms to their gods and goddesses, their heroes and heroines, they should imitate nature's best and truest hue, as well as her noblest forms; nor do we perceive that the grandeur of the subject would by that means be destroyed. Why a Venus, or a Hercules, badly coloured, should convey to the mind a nobler idea of the divine charms of the one, or the strength of the other, we are at a loss to conceive. In the same note, the elegant Annotator says, that "The Hours, as represented by Julio Romano, would not strike the imagination more forcibly from their being coloured with the pencil of Rubens, though *he* would have represented them more *naturally*;" while in N. 56. he maintains, that "The works of Mich. Angelo and Julio Romano may be said to be as *natural* as those of the Dutch painters," because they are "analogous to the mind or imagination of man." There seems here an apparent contradiction: the last assertion is at least too strong. As all painting is an imitation of nature, we should imagine that the picture which gives the best and truest resemblance of it, according to the kind of subject that is treated, will ever be most analogous to the mind, and consequently most *natural*. But, in these matters, which may be considered as the metaphysics of painting, as well as in every thing relative to the art, it is with the utmost diffidence that we give an opinion which may appear to contradict what comes from so respectable an authority. To enable the Reader to form some judgment of this part of the work, we insert N. 37. on the colouring

and composition of the ancients, in which we think some new lights are thrown upon the subject.

‘ From the various ancient Paintings, which have come down to us, we may form a judgment with tolerable accuracy of the excellencies and defects of the art among the ancients.

‘ There can be no doubt but that the same correctness of design was required from the Painter as from the Sculptor; and if the same good fortune had happened to us in regard to their Paintings, to possess what the Ancients themselves esteemed their master-pieces, which is the case in Sculpture, I have no doubt but we should find their figures as correctly drawn as the Laocoon, and probably coloured like Titian. What disposes me to think higher of their colouring than any remains of ancient Painting will warrant, is the account which Pliny gives of the mode of operation used by Apelles, that over his finished picture he spread a transparent liquor like ink, of which the effect was to give brilliancy, and at the same time to lower the too great glare of the colour: *Quod absoluta operaa tramento illinebat ita tenui, ut id ipsum repercussu claritates colorum excitaret.*—*Et tum ratione magna ne colorum claritas oculorum acium offenderet.* This passage, tho’ it may possibly perplex the critics, is a true and artist-like description of the effect of Glazing or Scumbling, such as was practised by Titian and the rest of the Venetian Painters: this custom, or mode of operation, implies at least a true taste of what the excellence of colouring consists, which does not proceed from fine colours but true colours; from breaking down these fine colours which would appear too raw, to a deep-toned brightness. Perhaps the manner in which Corregio practised the art of Glazing was still more like that of Apelles, which was only perceptible to those who looked close to the picture, *ad manum intuenti demum appareret*; whereas in Titian, and still more in Bassan and others his imitators, it was apparent on the slightest inspection: Artists, who may not approve of Glazing, must still acknowledge, that this practice is not that of ignorance.

‘ Another circumstance that tends to prejudice me in favour of their colouring, is the account we have of some of their principal painters using but four colours only. I am convinced the fewer the colours the cleaner will be the effect of those colours, and that four is sufficient to make every combination required. Two colours mixed together will not preserve the brightness of either of them single, nor will three be as bright as two: of this observation, simple as it is, an Artist, who wishes to colour bright, will know the value.

‘ In regard to their power of giving peculiar expression, no correct judgment can be formed; but we cannot well suppose that men, who were capable of giving that general grandeur of character, which so eminently distinguishes their works in Sculpture, were incapable of expressing peculiar passions.

‘ As to the enthusiastic commendations bestowed on them by their contemporaries, I consider them as of no weight. The best words are always employed to praise the best works. Admiration often proceeds from ignorance of higher excellence. What they appear
to

to have most failed in its composition, both in regard to the grouping of their figures, and the art of disposing the light and shadow in masses. It is apparent that this, which makes so considerable a part of modern art, was to them totally unknown.

‘ If the great Painters had possessed this excellence, some portion of it would have infallibly been diffused, and been discoverable in the works of the inferior rank of Artists, such as those whose works have come down to us, and which may be considered as on the same rank with the Paintings that ornament our public gardens: supposing our modern pictures of this rank only were preserved for the inspection of Connoisseurs two thousand years hence, the general principles of composition would be still discoverable in those pictures; however feebly executed there would be seen an attempt to an union of the figure with its ground, some idea of disposing both the figures and the lights in groups. Now as nothing of this appears in what we have of antient Painting, we may conclude, that this part of the art was totally neglected, or more probably unknown.

‘ They might, however, have produced single figures which approached perfection both in drawing and colouring; they might excel in a Solo, (in the language of Musicians) though they were probably incapable of composing a full piece for a concert of different instruments.’

We cannot dismiss this article without observing, that Mr. Mason has swelled his publication to an unwarrantable size. The title-page deceives us in a manner very different from most title-pages. We are led to expect only a translation of Fresnoy with Annotations: besides which we have an Epistle to Sir Joshua Reynolds, a Preface, the Life of Fresnoy, his original Text, his Judgment on the Painters of the two last ages, Pope's Epistle to Jervas, Dryden's Preface to his Translation of Fresnoy, and a Chronological List of Painters by Mr. Gray. To eke out a work with unessential accompaniments is a species of authorship which does not at all meet with our approbation. Should we be disposed to grant that the other attendants of this work are in their proper places, a concession, by the bye, sufficiently liberal, yet why load us with Fresnoy's text, or why compel us to pay for scraps from the works of Pope and Dryden, books which are in every body's hands? We are sorry to add, that this unnecessary addition makes up near one half of this very dear eight shilling pamphlet.—Besides, the London Booksellers consider the writings of the last two authors as property, and their works are bought and sold at their sales every day. The Reverend Poet should not have done unto others what he wished not to be done to himself—he should not have invaded the rights of the trade. Or had he forgotten the striking instance he gave of his own tenaciousness of literary property

property a few years ago? † There was less reason for this artifice in the present case, as we are convinced that Mr. Mason has not, like the unfortunate Dryden,

“For very bread descended to translate.”

ART. II. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, Vol. LXXII. for 1782. Part I. 4to. L. Davis.

ART. I. *Relazione di una nuova Pioggia*. An account of a new kind of rain by Count de Gioeni, an inhabitant of the 3d region of Etna. Communicated by Sir W. Hamilton.

On the morning of the 24th * current, all unsheltered places to the extent of seventy miles from N $\frac{1}{2}$. N. E. to S $\frac{1}{2}$. S. W. in a straight line from the vertex of Mount Etna, were covered with a yellowish chalk coloured water, which after it had evaporated, or insinuated itself into the earth, left behind it a substance which it contained, to the height of two or three lines; wherever it came in contact with iron, the metal became rusty. It is by no means unusual for volcanos to throw up sand, and for this sand to be transported by winds to a great distance, but the remarkable circumstance of the substance in question being accompanied with wet, afforded strong reasons for doubting whether it proceeded from this source. In order to ascertain this point, and likewise what effects might be expected from it, the Count proceeded to some experiments, both upon the rain after its contents had subsided, and upon those contents. The water exhibited no signs of decomposition on the addition of alkalis or mineral acids; when part of it was evaporated, the acids occasioned a slight effervescence, and syrup of violets gave a pale green colour, so that he was persuaded it contained a calcareous salt. The decoction of galls produced no precipitation. On calcining the deposited matter, it assumed a brick colour, in a more violent heat it almost lost this colour, and in a heat still more violent lost it entirely; it did not vitrify. No sulphureous or arsenical odour could be perceived. These three portions which had

† Mr. Mason very lately prosecuted a bookseller for printing—and that by mistake too,—*fifty verses or lines* written by the late Mr. Gray. After this it is difficult to conceive with what face he can commit the offence he condemned so severely, and apply to his own use and emolument the works, or parts of the works of Authors, for which a valuable consideration was paid by the Proprietors.

* The month is not mentioned: by the date of the postscript it would appear to have happened in April 1781.

thus

thus undergone different degrees of heat were exposed to a magnet, which did not act either on the first or second, but manifestly attracted part of the third; hence Count Gireno concluded that this earth contains a martial principal in a metallic form, and not combined with vitriolic acid. From these experiments he concludes the substance in question to be a volcanic matter, consisting of *fixed ammoniac* †, with a mixture of the calx of iron. We cannot help observing that his analysis is exceedingly deficient and unsatisfactory: Why did not he decompose the fixed ammoniac? Why did he not endeavour to ascertain the respective quantities of the iron and calcareous salt? In short a thousand questions occur, concerning none of which this analysis will satisfy us.

With respect to the manner in which this matter came to be mixed with water, it might have been accidental, i. e. it might have been thrown up and have descended on the clouds below, and so have fallen with the rain, or we may conceive that the thick smoke which contained the volcanic matter, might have been carried by the winds over that tract of country on which it fell, and then by being cooled, might have been so far condensed, as to exceed the gravity of the air beneath, and consequently fall in a coloured kind of rain.

In the English translation of this paper, short as it is, there are several inaccuracies. For instance, it is said that "the grey water after evaporating and filtering away, left every place covered with it." Now the relative *it* has no antecedent to which it can be referred except water, i. e. left every place covered with i self. In the original we find, *lastio peroqui dove la materia che contenea, left every where the matter which it contained*. Again in one of the notes "and thus account for the efflorescence on the iron's being exposed to the air." This is either not English, or not what the Author means to say: his words literally translated are "and thus explain the efflorescence (or rust,) which is produced on iron-work that lay exposed to the air." These are inaccuracies: the last expression we shall notice, proves that the translator did not understand the original; we are told "that the thick smoke which the volcanic matter contained might &c." This is nonsense, who ever heard of a fine powder containing a thick smoke? The original is

† In a note he says that numerous and repeated experiments have persuaded him that sea salt is one of the principal, and most abundant menstrua that excite effervescences in Etna, or that it is the basis of pum.

good sense and clears up the blunder; it runs thus "*che quel*
"*denso fume, che contenea la materia volcanica,* the thick
smoke which contained the volcanic matter, &c.

Art. 2. *Nova experimenta chemica quæ ad penitiorem acidi
e pinguedine eruti cognitionem valere videntur.*

Now chemical experiments which tend to throw light
upon the acid obtainable from fat. In a letter from Dr.
Crell to Dr. Hunter.

In the beginning of this paper, Dr. Crell describes a
method of obtaining the acid of fat much more expeditious
than that which is laid down in his former communication.
His method is briefly this, he first prepares a soap from pure
caustic alkali and fat. To this dissolved in water he adds
pounded allum, till there arises no more coagulated oil to the
surface of the solution: the oil he takes off with a skimmer,
and then filters the liquor and evaporates it to dryness. To
three parts of the saline mass thus obtained, (which is a com-
bination of the acid of fat and vegetable alkali,) he adds
one part of vitriolic acid, which immediately extricates grey
fumes with the odour of acid of fat, and assisted by a gentle
heat, drives over all that acid into the receiver. The acid
thus procured, is adulterated with the vitriolic, and may
be rectified by adding four parts to one of the saline mass
and re-distilling. For the theory of this process, which is
exceedingly ingenious, we must refer to the paper itself.

He now turned his thoughts to the effects produced by
this acid on metals. He began with gold, entertaining how-
ever small hopes of obtaining a solution; he exposed the
mixture to digestion in a gentle heat, and was surprised at
the appearance of a yellow hue in the menstruum, though it
was evident that much of the solvent remained in the bottom
of the vessel. Upon employing platina and even silver, the
same appearance took place: He now began to suspect that
this hue arose from the acid itself, and upon boiling down an
ounce to half that quantity, the residuum became of a golden
colour: upon distilling the same quantity of acid eight times
to dryness, a brown matter in concentric circles was left at
the end of each operation at the bottom of the retort: It is
remarkable that the acid loses strength by each distillation;
and in this respect the Author observes, that the acid of fat
is to be esteemed intermediate between the mineral acids and
vinegar, and those acids such as tartar and salt of sorrel, which
cannot be made to distil without being destroyed. But
though this acid be incapable of dissolving gold in its me-
tallic form, it combines in small proportion with its calx,
and what is still more remarkable, when eighty drops of the
acid of fat were poured on gold leaf, and twenty drops of
nitrous

nitrous acid were added, a solution evidently took place; on the addition of other twenty drops of nitrous acid, it became more remarkable, and when heat was applied, the whole leaf was dissolved. The calces of platina and silver were dissolved. Its effects on mercury were remarkable: it seemed to destroy its mobility without combining with it, which however it did in an inconsiderable degree. The calx it readily dissolved, and on exposing the solution to heat, a new kind of sublimate, not easily soluble in water, arose to the neck of the retort. Copper and iron and zinc were readily dissolved, lead with some difficulty: minium again easily. The regulus of antimony was dissolved by abstraction. Tin was corroded into a yellow powder, as this subsided the transparent liquor above assumed a beautiful rose colour. It did not act on bismuth, but dissolved the calx. The same was the case with respect to cobalt. On nicke it had a very trifling action, but dissolved the calx readily, which was not precipitated by the vitriolic or nitrous acids. With white arsenic it combined in very inconsiderable proportion. The ore of manganese it first corroded and then dissolved. It is remarkable that this acid, which had always assumed a brown colour when digested with other metallic substances, did not exhibit the same appearance when digested with the ore of manganese. The Author next proceeds to consider the effects produced by the acid of fat when added to solutions of metals in other acids: from those of the three perfect metals it throws down a precipitate, which, after it is carefullyedulcorated, is more or less deliquescent. When added to nitrated mercury, it threw down a white sediment; and from corrosive sublimate it also threw down something. The Author imagines that the white sediment produced thus from corrosive sublimate may serve as a test to distinguish the acid of fat from other acids, and particularly from the marine. The precipitate was soluble in water, and when the solution was evaporated, afforded a white residuum which was not deliquescent. Small needle-like crystals descended towards the bottom of the vessel on adding the acid of fat to a solution of lead in the nitrous acid. The solution of bismuth in nitrous acid, and of regulus of antimony in aqua regia, afforded precipitates on addition of our acid, when water no longer rendered them turbid. The solution of tin in aqua regia afforded a precipitate of a yellowish brown colour. The acid of fat produced no effect on being added to the following solutions of copper in the vitriolic acids, of iron and zinc in the same acids, of cobalt in the nitrous acid, of nicke in the nitrous and marine acids, and of arsenic and manganese in the nitrous acid.

The

The next enquiry of Dr. Crell, was into the action of the different acids upon Segner's salt, viz. the combination of the acid of fat and the vegetable alkali. It was decomposed by the three mineral acids, but not by the acetic, fluor acids or phosphoric salt, or white arsenic, or nitrated cobalt. Animal sal ammoniac, (which consists of our acid united with volatile alkali,) mixed in the proportion of two drachms, with fifteen grains of lapis hæmatites; and submitted to sublimation, arose unchanged while the hæmatites remained in the bottom of the vessel.

The Author's next object was, to examine the effects produced by his acid, when it was mixed with different neutral salts. On mixing it with nitre and performing distillation, he found in the receiver, a fluid consisting partly of the nitrous acid and partly of the acid of fat. On making the same experiment with sea salt, the liquor which was driven, appeared to be the marine acid in a state of purity. His way of ascertaining this difficult point was very ingenious. He made three mixtures, the first with eighty drops of aq. fort. with forty of spirit of salt; the second with the same quantities of nitrous and marine acid, with the addition of forty drops of acid of fat. The third of eighty drops of aqua fortis, with forty of the acid of fat. For each of these mixtures he set aside two scruples of malacca tin, which he added very gradually, taking care not to throw in a fresh portion before the former was dissolved. No. 1 acted with the greatest force upon the metal, No. 3 with less force, and No. 2 with the least of all. No. 1 dissolved all but seven grains; the solution was transparent and without sediment: No. 2. was the most turbid, had a copious blackish sediment, and left seventeen grains undissolved: No. 3 exhibited a transparent solution, had a small brownish sediment, and left nine grains undissolved. After these experiments which were designed for standards, he mixed eighty drops of the fluid obtained by distillation with 160 of nitrous acid, in which he dissolved, as before, one drachm of tin; in the bottom of the vessel there remained a black sediment. From the great quantity of tin dissolved and the little sediment, and its not being of a brown colour, and the limpidity of the solution, he concluded that there was no mixture of the acid of fat in the distilled liquor. He supposes the black colour to have arisen from the marine acid, (which was more concentrated than he suspected,) not being diluted with a sufficient quantity of the nitrous. It is a little surprising that the Author has not here made an observation which very naturally suggests itself; we mean that this experiment compared with a preceding one, which we have noticed above,

above, affords the appearance of a reciprocal decomposition. In this case the acid of fat decomposes sea salt, before the marine acid decomposed Segner's salt. What can be the cause of these contrary phenomena?

On the addition of our acid to terra foliata tartari, and applying heat, acetous acid passed over into the recipient. The Author did not expect that Glauber's salt would be decomposed by his acid; however the liquor obtained by the process we have so often alluded to had a sulphurous smell; but this effect the Author attributes to phlogiston adhering to the acid of fat. On adding the same acid to tartarus tartarisatus, an abundant sediment fell to the bottom, which proved to be cream of tartar.

In this brief view our Readers will observe several marks of resemblance between the acid of fat and the marine. This did not escape the sagacity of our Author, and he has drawn the following parallel between them. With this volatile alkali both constitute a dry sal ammoniac, and with magnesia a very deliquescent salt; both precipitate silver and mercury from their menstruum: both when combined with regulus of antimony quit it on the affusion of water. This resemblance seems to be indicated by the muriatic acid not precipitating mercury or silver from their solution in our acid. There is however a great difference between the characters of the two acids, which consists in the intimate combination of our acid with oily particles, its forming with calcareous earth a salt that is not deliquescent; the easy production of a naphtha from it; its dissolving silver and mercury in the moist way, and its precipitating the latter metal from corrosive sublimate.

Justice requires us to add, that this is one of the best chemical essays we have lately met with: the experiments are well contrived and well conducted, and the Author appears to be well acquainted with all the resources of chemistry. We shall be glad to see the continuation of his experiments which he promises.

Art. 3. *Observations on the bills of mortality at York.*
By W. White, M. D. F. S. A.

The general ardour of enquiry which now prevails, with respect to the state of population in this kingdom, will we hope soon ascertain the important question, whether it is on the decline or not. Dr. White's tables are in favour of the former opinion. It appears from them that for seven years from 1728 to 1735 the burials exceeded the births 685, or 98 annually. From January 1, 1770, to December 31, 1776, the number of males born in seven years was 1666

 Ditto buried

1476
Of

Of females born	_____	1657
Buried	_____	1699

He further calculates, that in 1735, one died annually out of 21 $\frac{1}{2}$, but at present only one in 28 $\frac{1}{2}$. This increasing population and healthiness he ascribes to inoculation, to improvements in the cure of diseases, and in the management of infants: these are the general causes; the local causes are improvements in and near the city of York.

Art. 4. *An account of a monstrous birth*, by John Torlefe, Esq; chief of Anjango.

This article consists rather of a plate than a description.

Art. 5. *Experiments with Chinese hemp seed*. In a letter from Keane Fitzgerald Esq; to Sir J. Banks, F. R. S.

The Chinese hemp, as Mr. Fitzgerald was informed, by the person from whom he had the seed, is deemed superior to that of any other country, both for fineness and strength. These seeds, though they had been kept for a very considerable time, almost all vegetated and produced plants remarkable for their height and size. The toughness of the hemp which they afforded appears to be extraordinary; upon drying and beating it divides into an infinity of tough fibres. The plants when stripped are quite white, and when the lateral branches are cut off, appear like handsome young poles. The woody part seems pretty substantial, and if it should be found of any duration, might be applied to many useful purposes; or if not, Mr. Fitzgerald imagines they would produce plenty of good ashes by burning. The rough hemp which was peeled from the thirty two plants, when thoroughly dried, weighed three pounds and a quarter. Encouraged by the success of his experiment, Mr. Fitzgerald applied to the Directors of the East-India Company, to order their agents to procure some of the best seed that can be obtained in China: the Directors he tells us very obligingly promised to attend to his application.

Art 6. *An account of some scoria from iron-works*, which resemble the vitrified filaments described by Sir W. Hamilton. In a letter from Samuel More, Esq; to Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. F. R. S.

Art. 7. *An extract of the register of the parish of Holy Cross, Salop*, being a third decade of years, from Michaelmas 1770, to Michaelmas 1780, carefully digested in the following table. By the Reverend Mr. William Gorfuch, Vicar.

It appears that the excess of the births above the burials in this parish, amounts to seventy four in ten years. In one of the tables annexed to this article, we were struck, by what appears to us a very remarkable circumstance. In the cata-

catalogue of the distempers and casualties from 1770 to 1780, we have the following items.

Consumption	—————	—————	62
Convulsions	—————	—————	23
Dropſy	—————	—————	20
Fever	—————	—————	15
Small-pox	—————	—————	43
Sore Throat	—————	—————	8

In bills of mortality, it is well known, that under convulsions, and even consumption, are classed very heterogeneous diseases. Hence we may suppose that the number of persons cut off by the small-pox in Salop, equals that destroyed by phthisis pulmonalis, and far exceeds that destroyed by any other disease. Is not this circumstance almost peculiar to Salop? If so, what can be the reason of it? Are the prejudices against inoculation still in force in that place? Or is it possible that the improved mode of treatment is not practised there? The cause of this phenomenon whatever it may be, is well worth the enquiry of Mr. Gorsuch, and we should be glad to see it ascertained.

The six following articles either require for their illustration plates and diagrams, or consist of calculations and catalogues. For these reasons, it is impossible either to give such an abridgement, or make such quotations, as will enable our Readers to form clear ideas of their merit and contents. We therefore refer to the Transactions. The titles are as follow.

Art. 8. *An experiment proposed for determining by the observation of the fixed stars, whether the rays of light in passing through different media, change their velocity according to the law which results from Sir Isaac Newton's ideas concerning the cause of refraction; and for ascertaining their velocity in every medium, whose refracting density is known.*
By Patrick Wilson, A. M.

The method of experiment here alluded to, is that of observing the aberration of the fixed stars with a telescope filled with a dense fluid, such as water, or any other equally limpid, and of greater refraction, fitted to bring the rays to a focus, by the surface of the medium opposed to the object having a proper degree of convexity.

Sir Isaac Newton, it is well known to Opticians and Astronomers, upon the hypothesis, that the refraction of light is caused by a certain action of gross and sensible bodies upon it, has demonstrated that the sines of incidence and refraction, when the rays pass out of one medium into another of different density, must always be in a constant ratio. Upon the same grounds he has also shewn that the velocity of the

rays must be greater in the more refracting medium in the inverse ratio of the sines. It is this property of refraction which Mr. Wilson proposes to bring to the test of direct experiment.

Art. 2. *Quantity of Rain which fell at Barrowby, near Leeds.* By G. Lloyd, Esq; F. R. S.

Art. 10. *An Account of an improved Thermometer.* By Mr. James Six.

Art. 11. *On the Parallax of the fixed Stars.* By Mr. Herdzel.

Art. 12. *Catalogue of double Stars.* By the same.

Art. 13. *Description of a Lamp-micrometer, and the method of using it.* By the same.

Art 14. *A Paper to obviate some doubts concerning the great magnifying Powers used.*

Two papers remain of considerable length and importance: one by Mr. Kirwan, and the other by that ingenious philosopher, Professor Volta of Como. Of these we shall endeavour to furnish our Readers with an account in a subsequent number. After what we have already said, it is scarcely necessary to observe, that no publication of any of the numerous learned societies in Europe is better entitled to the attention of chemists and astronomers, and indeed of natural philosophers in general, than the present volume of the Transactions.

ART. III. *A Letter to his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury.* By Richard Lord Bishop of Landaff, 4to. 2s. Evans.

IT is with the utmost pleasure that we have perused this well written and sensible letter. The plan of reformation which it lays before the public, merits the most hearty and warmest approbation. To the openness and candour of an honest heart is joined, in this address, a manly decisiveness of opinion. Led on by the "*mens conscia recti*", unfettered by prejudice, unrestrained by situation, and regardless of selfish consequences, A BISHOP boldly informs the public, that the unequal distribution of the temporalities of the Church is, to the greater number of the Clergy, a matter of much hardship and injustice, in its consequences hurtful to the interests of true religion, and loudly calls for a reform. We say BOLDLY informs the public, because this worthy Prelate, while labouring for the interests of the Church, and of society, must have been conscious that he was going to expose himself to the fate of all reformers; to every thing that the rancour of malevolence could suggest against the man, or the narrow soul of prejudice object to the reformer. But, fortunately for the Bishop of Landaff, he lives in the 18th century:

century: and however unpleasant it may be to merit praise, and to meet with reproach, yet, at least, the fate of Cranmer or Gallileo is not *now* to be dreaded.

The evil, which this enlightened Father of the Church wishes now to cure, has been long felt and lamented by the sober and thinking part of both laity and clergy. But, that blind reverence which is acquired by education and habit for ancient establishments, that acquiescence which follows it, a fear perhaps of doing harm, selfish, prudential considerations, &c. have, hitherto, prevented those from speaking, to whom it was probable any attention would be paid. It was no secret that the incomes of the Bishopricks were shamefully unequal, and not at all proportioned to the extent or labour of the diocese, the only thing that could warrant inequality of income—That, this naturally produced a desire of translation from the poorer to the more profitable Bishopricks—That, frequency of translation prevented that intimate union between the pastor and his flock which should ever subsist between them—That, it had a tendency to make him consider himself rather as the herdsman of a day, than as an established and faithful shepherd—That, in pursuit of preferment, the Bishop might give too much of his time and attention to the Court, and too little of both to his diocese—And, that the same cause might produce a criminal obsequiousness to the Crown, and, of course, a neglect of the rights of the community.

It was likewise well known that the lesser dignitaries possessed more than their proportion of what has been granted by the state for the maintenance of the Clergy, after allowing its full force to the argument generally alledged in favour of these dignities, viz. that they are useful, that they are necessary, as rewards of merit.

But we suspect it is not sufficiently known that the income of near two thirds of that respectable body of men, the parochial Clergy, does not exceed 40*l.* a year. Here the Reader must not mistake us; we mean not to say that none of those benefices are under 40*l.* on the contrary, we are certain that many are under 20*l.* and we have good reason to believe that a very considerable number are of this kind*. The benevolent man, the patriot and the Christian must read this account with regret and indignation.

Such are the grievances which the plan of this sensible Prelate proposes to redress. The public will be enabled to judge of it from the following extracts.

* In this account *Curates* are not included.

‘ To keep your Grace (says the Bishop,) no longer in suspense as to the meaning of this address, I have two proposals to make to you; one respects the revenues of the Bishops; the other those of the inferior Clergy; both of them tending to the same end;—not a parity of preferments, but a better apportioned distribution of what the state allows for the maintenance of the established Clergy.

‘ To begin with the Bishopricks. It would be an easy matter to display much erudition, in tracing the history of the establishment of the several Archbishopricks and Bishopricks, which now subsist in England and Wales; but as the investigation would tend very little, if at all, to the illustration of the subject we are upon, I will not mispend either your Grace’s leisure or my own in making it. Whatever was the primary occasion of it, the fact is certain,—that the Revenues of the Bishopricks are very unequal in value, and that there is a great inequality also in the Patronage appertaining to the different Sees. The first proposal which I humbly submit to your Grace’s deliberation, is the utility of bringing a Bill into Parliament,—to render the Bishopricks more equal to each other, both with respect to income and patronage, by annexing parts of the Estates, and part of the Preferments of the richer Bishopricks, as they become vacant, to the poorer.

‘ 1. By a Bill of this kind, the poorer Bishops would be freed from the necessity of holding ecclesiastical preferments *in commendam* with their Bishopricks; a practice which bears hard upon the rights and expectations of the rest of the Clergy; which is disagreeable to the Bishops themselves; which exposes them to much, perhaps, undeserved obloquy, but which certainly had better not subsist in the Church. I do not take upon me to fix the precise sum which would enable a Bishop, not to pollute Gospel Humility with the Pomp of Prelacy, not to emulate the Noble and Opulent in such luxuries and expensive levities as become neither Churchmen nor Christians; but to maintain such a decent establishment in the world as would give weights to his example, and authority to his admonition; to make such a moderate provision for his children, as their father’s mode of living would give them some little right to expect; and to recommend his religion by works of charity, to the serious examination of believers of every denomination.

‘ A second consequence of the Bill proposed, would be a greater independence of the Bishops in the House of Lords.—I know that many will be startled, I beg them not to be offended, at the Surrender of the Bishops not being independent in the House of Lords: and it would be easy enough to weave a logical cobweb, large enough and strong enough to cover and protect the conduct of the Right Reverend Bench from the attacks of those who dislike Episcopacy. This I say would be an easy task, but it is far above my ability to eradicate from the minds of others, (who are, notwithstanding, as well attached to the Church Establishment as ourselves), a suspicion, that the prospect of being translated influences the minds of the Bishops too powerfully, and induces them to pay too great an attention to the beck of a Minister. I am far from saying or thinking, that the Bishops of the present age are more obsequious in their attention to Ministers than their predecessors have been, or that the Spiritual
Lords

Lords are the only Lords who are liable to this suspicion, or that Lords in general, are the only persons on whom expectation has an influence; but the suspicion, whether well or ill founded, is disreputable to our Order; and, what is of worse consequence, it hinders us from doing that good which we otherwise might do; for the Laity, whilst they entertain such a suspicion concerning us, will accuse us of Avarice and Ambition, of making again of Godliness, of bartering the dignity of our Office for the chance of a translation, in one word of *secularity*.

To the objection that might be here brought against his plan, that it "will reduce the influence of the Crown in the House of Lords," he has given a most able and satisfactory reply, which closes with these remarkable words:

'The Bishops have, on trying occasions, been fast friends to the Crown; they have, on trying occasions also, been fast friends to the liberties of the people; and they would not, in my humble opinion, become worse friends to either King or People, from their being rendered independent of them both.

'A third probable effect, (says this judicious writer,) of the proposed plan, would be a longer residence of the Bishops in their respective Dioceses; from which the best consequences might be expected. When the temptation to wish for translations were in a great measure removed, it would be natural for the Bishops, in general, to consider themselves as settled for life, in the Sees to which they should be first appointed; this consideration would induce them to render their places of residence more comfortable and commodious; and an opportunity of living more comfortably, would beget an inclination to live more constantly in them. Being wedded as it were to a particular Diocese, they would think it expedient to become, and they would of course become better acquainted with their Clergy; and by being better acquainted with the situations, prospects, tempers, and talents of their Clergy, they would be better able to co-operate with them, in the great work of amending the morals of his Majesty's subjects, and of feeding the flock of Christ.

'The second thing which I have to recommend to your Grace's attention is the introduction of a Bill into Parliament—for appropriating as they become vacant, one third or some other definitive part, of the Income of every Deanery, Prebend or Canony, of the Churches of Westminster, Windsor, Christchurch, Canterbury, Worcester, Durham, Norwich, Ely, Peterborough, Carlisle, &c. to the same purposes, *mutatis mutandis*, as the First Fruits and Tenths were appropriated by the act passed in the fifth of Queen Anne*.

'Enough has been said concerning the poverty of the greatest

* The act of Queen Anne appropriates the first fruits and tenths to the augmentation of small livings. But, so inadequate is the fund, and, of course, so slow has been the progress of augmentation, that numbers of livings under 20l. per annum still remain unaugmented: and before they can be all augmented in this way to 50l. per annum, between 2 and 300 years must elapse.

part of our Parochial Churches and Chapels; it is a fact not known, I believe, by many of the Laity; felt, however by many deserving Clergy; and lamented, it is to be hoped, by all of us, who have been fortunate enough to obtain better situations in the Establishment; fortunate enough I must be allowed to call it, for there are many amongst the poorest of the Parochial Clergy, whose merits as Scholars, as Christians, and as men, would be no disgrace to the most deserving Prelate on the Bench. The plan I have the honour of presenting to your Grace, would remedy this defect in our Establishment in no long course of years; it would produce a wonderful change for the better, in fourscore or an hundred years, in the condition of the inferior Clergy. It would immediately begin to operate for their benefit, though its operation would not be complete, till all those who are possessed of the Dignities in question were gathered to their fathers: thirty or forty years are a long period when considered as part of the life of an individual, but they are nothing when considered as part of the existence of a community; no dislike, therefore, should be conceived against the proposal, from its not being instantly attended by its utmost possible utility; that could not be effected, without depriving of their property the present possessors of these dignities; a measure too full of injustice and cruelty to be thought of, except by selfish Enthusiasts in times of public confusion. If the plan is adopted we ourselves shall feel its good effects in part, and our posterity will feel them in its full perfection. The dignities though thus diminished, would still be great objects to the Clergy, great enough, if properly bestowed, to procure the exertion of the most distinguished talents in the Service of Learning and Religion.

The Bishop, after this, though he does not absolutely decide as to the method for carrying this latter part of his plan into execution, yet mentions several ways in which it might be done: and successfully answers an objection that might be made to his proposed arrangement, "That it would be the occasion of too great a portion of the lands of the kingdom being held in *mortmain*." But, for a detail of these matters we must refer the Reader to the Letter itself.

Though we have already dwelt long upon this article, yet we cannot help giving to the Public a curious fact, which we have reason to think is far from being generally known.

'The revenue of the Church of England (says the Bishop,) is not, I think, well understood in general; at least I have met with a great many very sensible men, of all professions and ranks, who did not understand it. They have expressed a surprise, bordering on disbelief, when I have ventured to assure them, that the whole income of the Church, including Bishopricks, Deans and Chapters, Rectories, Vicarages, Dignities and Benefices of all kinds, and even the two Universities with their respective Colleges, which being Lay Corporations ought not to be taken into the account, did not amount, upon the most liberal calculation, to 1500000*l.* a year.'

He then supposes all the dignities of the Church, and the two

two Universities annihilated, and their revenue divided equally among the parochial clergy ; in which case, he assures us that the annual income of each would not exceed 150l.

We shall take our leave of this masterly performance with laying before the Reader part of the conclusion, which strongly marks at once the vigorous mind, and Christian meekness of the Writer.

‘ The Business thus submitted to the public judgment, cannot be stifled by the efforts of interest or prejudice : nor will it ever be brought forward by its proposer in any other way ; unless public approbation shall prove that it is calculated for publick Good. I may not, perhaps, be able to give up my opinion to the opinion of others ; but I shall be both able and willing, in deference to their opinions, to give up my plan ; for my zeal for rectifying what seems wrong, is tempered, I hope, by a respect for the judgment of others ; by a disposition (after having proposed openly and freely what seems amiss) to acquiesce quietly, in what cannot quietly be amended.

‘ As to any censure to which I may have exposed myself in becoming, as some will scoffingly phrase it, a Reformer ; in disturbing, as others will, or will seem to apprehend, the repose of the Establishment, I will, as the Apostle recommends, *take it patiently* : it is much easier to bear the reproach of other men’s tongues, than of our own minds ; and that I could not have escaped, had I done less than I have done. I flatter myself, however, or rather I have good reason to expect, that many of my Brethren will see the subject in the same light that I have done, and will concur in recommending it, when the more urgent concerns of the State are in some measure settled, to the notice of Parliament. And from the bottom of my heart I beseech both your Grace and them, to weigh the matter with great accuracy, and I have no doubt that both you and they will then give judgment concerning it with great Sincerity.’

ART. IV. *Fashionable Follies : a Novel.* Containing the History of a Parisian Family. 12mo. 2 vols. 6s. sewed. Doddsley.

THE Moralist, who views with the eye of speculation, the various orders of which society consists, will find each of them marked with a considerable portion of vice and folly. In the lowest ranks of mankind, the many passions which degrade our nature, are seen in their grossest habits, and most disgusting appearance. As observation wanders from vulgarity to refinement, it discovers vice in a variety of characters, though her essential qualities are the same. Fashion may change the features of her borrowed countenance ; but, whenever her mask falls off, her original aspect remains unaltered. The blaze of distinction, the glitter of wealth, and the authority of power, may, with

the weak and ignorant, change the name, and even the nature of things; may make vice seem to be virtue, and folly to be wisdom. With the superficial observer of right and wrong, custom and inclination conspire to confound their distinction. The delicacy of manners which gilds over the vices of the great, softens the deformity of their appearance; and contributes to render their possessors, rather the objects of imitation, than of abhorrence. *To shoot folly, therefore, as it flies*; and to expose the deformity of vice in a manner most likely to be useful, it seems necessary to disrobe her of those borrowed ornaments, which she usurps from rank, elegance, and distinction. This is a task, however, hardly to be expected from a modern novel: since the success of this species of writing, seems rather to depend on gratifying the fashionable vices of the age, than on satirising and exposing their malignity. The light reader seeks for amusement rather than instruction; he peruses with eagerness the annals of successful gallantry; but turns, with averted eye, from the page of moral improvement.

Under these circumstances, to diffuse even a small portion of utility into a work calculated for entertainment, is, at least in some degree, meritorious. And, after tracing a dissipated character through all the stages of fashionable folly, to be disgusted with it at last, and dissatisfied with the principles on which it acted, is oftener to be wished for, than expected.

The volumes before us are the history of a Parisian family. Gallantry, of course, has no small share in the narrative. An old Baron and his Wife, both tottering on the brink of another world, are still playing a multiplicity of amorous pranks in this. Their daughter and her husband, are the principal heroine and hero of the piece. And, in truth, their extravagancies entitle them to that distinction. The story is told in a pleasing, familiar style, and appears to be the production of a person accustomed to fashionable society. The following description of an intrigue of the young Marchioness, will, we doubt not, be acceptable to many of our Readers.

C F O L L Y CXL.

AT last, however, it happened that the Marchioness one evening at a ball, at a friend's house, met with the Viscount De l'Encluse; he was a tall boy, just turned of nineteen, in the bloom of youth; the lustre of health glowed on his cheeks; an animated complexion, sparkling eyes, and white even teeth, gained him the admiration of most of the ladies; he was well shaped for his size, but rather inclined to fat; he was audacious, lively and familiar in his behaviour.

viour among women, and most of those with whom he conversed, liked him the better for the importunance with which he addressed them: his character was not so amiable as his figure; he was both malicious and spiteful; would repeat and propagate scandal of those to whom he professed friendship; was particularly satirical on the conduct of women, as his adventures among the worthless part of the sex had been so many that he had from thence imbibed an liberal notion of adl. This was the man with whom Madame D'Illois became captivated at first sight; she thought him the most entertaining, agreeable creature in the world, and as he treated her with very little ceremony, she encouraged him by laughing at the scandalous anecdotes he told of her acquaintance, and permitted him great liberties in his conversation, not doubting but when she chose to assume a different mode of behaviour, she could easily awe him into a proper respect; but the Viscount was too much used to the advances of the ladies, not to perceive the impression he had made on the Marchioness, or to be so easily repulsed: her partiality to him was too apparent to be denied, he therefore attached himself to her, and the Marchioness already more than half vanquished by the depravity of her own inclination, yielded in a very short time to her lover, and became as compleatly ridiculous towards him in her behaviour as any of those unfortunate women whose histories he had entertained her with.

F O L L Y CXLI.

THE Viscount, by a very extraordinary effort and most surprising taciturnity, kept the secret of his conquest over Madame D'Illois for three whole days, at the end of which he was unable to resist the pleasure of relating it to some of his intimate friends, (after taking the precaution to swear them to secrecy, which they doubtless observed with the same delicacy he had done himself); but grown more negligent in a few days after, when he had finished his usual bottle of champagne, "Come, (he would say) let us drink a bumper to poor little D'Illois, the best woman in the world, and so partial to me that it is astonishing; my acquaintance with her has been so short, that I am surprized myself at the rapidity of my success. I may say with Cæsar, I came, I saw, and conquered. I have not the honour of knowing the lady's husband, but I am sure he has the most easy, gentleman-per'd wife in Paris." Not content with treating her name with so little reserve amongst his companions, he prevailed on Madame D'Illois to give him her picture, which she readily granted, and and looked on the request as a proof of his passion, little suspecting the purpose for which he intended it.

F O L L Y CXLII.

SOON after, the Marquis happened to meet the Viscount at a joyous supper, at the house of a friend; they were mutually pleased with each other's conversation; and the Marquis being much too polite ever to mention the name of his wife, most of the com-
pany.

pany (and the Viscount amongst the rest) looked upon him as a single man ; before they parted, the Viscount engaged the whole party to spend the following evening at his house. They met at the time appointed ; and wit, good humour, and plenty of champagne made them still more gay than they were the night before ; mirth and wine elated the fancy of the Viscount, and he began as usual to boast the number of his triumphs over the most celebrated beauties ; and even went so far as to affirm, “ there was not a truly virtuous woman in the world, at least not one who might not be subdued by any man of person and address, if he thought it worth his while to give himself any trouble about her ; and to convince you (continued he) that *Lucretias* are in this age very rare to be met with, I will shew you the portraits of those whom I have found to be very different creatures, and yourselves shall judge from the number of pictures in my possession, how many a monarch might obtain if he had a desire to become master of the pictures of all the condescending fair ones in the universe :” here he rose, and opened the door of a large elegant closet, whose walls were almost covered with pictures, and illuminated in an elegant taste ; they all rushed into it with impatience ; and the first object that struck the eyes of Monsieur D’Illois was the exact resemblance of his wife ; however well-bred a husband he might be, yet it would be a dishonour to human nature not to suppose he felt a very disagreeable sensation at this discovery ; but he disguised his emotion, and with the calmness of a philosopher, attended to the Viscount, who enraptured at being thus surrounded with trophies so flattering to his self-love, pointed to each particular painting, and gave his friends a short history of the fair one it resembled. “ The first, gentlemen, (said he) on my right hand, is old Madame de P—— ; no great addition to the collection I confess, but she was my first conquest among what is called virtuous ladies ; she it seems had a kind of curiosity to know how a boy of sixteen made love ; and I, (out of a frolic) had a mind to try whether a woman of fifty would relish such a declaration : next to this old hag, (by way of contrast) behold the young blooming Celia ; I pursued her five weeks with unremitting ardour, but she condescended not to reward my passion till the very day before she married my most intimate friend the Count of R—— : this little bewitching face (up higher) the Countess de Morun, who though she scruples not to grant favours to her lovers, has the delicacy to declare she still adores her husband with the most unabated fondness : this on your left, is the famous devotee Madame de M. who every day in public devoutly prays to heaven that she may be forgiven the sins she hourly commits in private : this haughty beauty is the Dutchess De C——, who yielded to my wishes with a most petrifying air of grandeur ; but making use of the privilege of a favoured lover, and going rather abruptly into her apartment three days after, found her in the arms of a footman : that further lady is the smiling princess of T——, who when I hinted at noon in a whisper (after passing the night in her apartment) that I should be glad to repeat the assignation, turned from me and burst into a loud laugh ; told me that she wondered at

“ my

"my assurance, that I ought to know that a *faux pas* in a woman of her rank, was a mere jest; and that she supposed I was not to learn that nothing could be more dull than the repetition of a joke."

F O L L Y CXLIII.

IN this manner he ran over great numbers with the most surprising volubility, till he came at last to that of the Marchioness: "Here! (said he, turning to the Marquis), do you know this young beauty?" "I have seen her (returned Monsieur D'Illois, rather embarrass'd):" "*à propos*, (continued De l'Encluse) she is your name sake; is she a relation?" "very distantly, said the Marquis;" "so much the better, (cried the Viscount) I shan't lose my story for all that; these little sparkling eyes and coquettish airs announce the vivacity of the disposition of the Marchioness D'Illois; and in truth so very lively is she, that she has scarce patience to wait for the offer of her lover's heart, before she takes pains to convince him she means to accept of his person; I speak from experience: three days from the hour I first saw her, arranged matters between her and me; but then I must do her the justice to say, she received an impression in my favour at first sight; she is a charming, dissipated, lively creature—but I have had her these ten days; and if it were to continue ten days longer; I should think myself married to her—I would advise you, D'Illois, faith, to begin where I leave off. She would suit you exactly—her beauties are worthy a particular examination; come you shall have a nearer view of my little goddess." He then took down the picture, and gave it into the hand of the Marquis, who endeavoured to look upon it with a smile, when at that very instant there entered a young man, a relation to Monsieur D'Illois, just come from the college. "Ah! (said he to the Marquis) what do I see! my dear cousin enraptured with the portrait of his own wife. I never saw any thing so like since I was born." At this unexpected discovery the Viscount started with surprize, and seemed covered with confusion, and bursting into a loud laugh, "Well, gentlemen, said the Marquis, my blundering cousin here has discovered to you the husband of the complaisant lady whose history you have heard; but be assured her conduct gives me not the least disquiet, we are very happy people, and each amuse ourselves our own way: I am not in the least angry with the Viscount for endeavouring to make himself agreeable to a pretty woman because she is my wife; and one day or other, when he is so imprudent as to marry, I shall hope to return the compliment, which is the only way I shall ever think of revenging the wrongs he has done me." He then shook hands with the Viscount, and every one present declared he was a noble fellow, praised the noble manner in which he had received this intelligence to the skies, and unanimously agreed none but a fool would make himself uneasy about the conduct of a woman. "But what devil, (said the Marquis) brought you, cousin of the woe-ful countenance, hither at so critical a juncture?" "A most
"unac-

"unaccountable adventure, upon my honour (said the young man) I have been nearly terrified out of my senses, and seeing your carriage waiting at this door, was glad to come in to recover my surprize; and believe me, when you have heard what I have to say, you will own my fears have not been without foundation."

Those who are in search of entertainment, will find gratification in these volumes; and from the manner in which the principal characters terminate their career of dissipation, it is hoped, they will not be read without instruction.

ART. V. *Albert, Edward and Laura, and the Hermit of Priestland*; Three Legendary Tales, by R. Roberts, 4to. 3s. Cadell.

AMONGST the number of tales in imitation of the ancient ballads of chivalry, or what the Spaniards call *Romances*, which have appeared within these few years, we do not recollect many that have conspicuous merit. In poetry, as in painting, to imitate the ease and simplicity of nature, seems an arduous task, if we are to judge by the want of success which so generally attends the attempt. Every dauber, who first sees the simple and graceful attitudes of Raffaele, thinks himself able, not only to equal, but excel them; disappointment, however, has hitherto attended the efforts even of the greatest masters. So, to attain the interesting simplicity in which the excellence of this species of composition consists, though easy in idea, is found by experience beyond the powers of the herd of writers. For the most part, instead of the *simple*, we are presented with the *insipid*: and sometimes simplicity is totally destroyed by a load of gaudy and unessential ornament. We are tired at other times with a meagre narrative, without any of those incidents with which genius knows how to adorn a subject. It is hard to enumerate the various ways in which we are disappointed, but nothing so easy as to affirm with truth, that disappointment and disgust, are what we in general meet with, on the perusal of what are called *Legendary Tales*, &c. We are sorry to say, that the three Tales which we have now before us, cannot be exempted from this general censure.

In the first, Albert, who had retired to a house belonging to the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, recounts to the Prior, that the infidelity of his wife with an humble friend, whom he had raised from indigence and obscurity to "a post of profit and command," was the occasion of his retirement. Informs him, that he had sacrificed them both to his injured honour, and that his sorrows never will have an end.

end. The stanzas, in which Albert describes the "guilty scene" that had forever robbed him of his happiness, are perhaps the best in the whole publication.

XXXVIII.

"Eager the tidings to declare,
"I trusted not the courier's haste;
"Myself the welcome news would bear,
"And with my friend the pleasure taste.

XXXIX.

"Just as the setting sun declin'd,
"I reach my once belov'd retreat;
"And entering through a wood behind,
"Which led to JULIA's fav'rite seat;

XI.

"What language can expression find?
"What words can paint the guilty scene?
"From those dread struggles in my mind,
"Oh father! guess the guilt I mean.

XLI.

"The wife, who kept my treasur'd heart,
"The friend, my bosom held most dear;
"Nature with horror seem'd to start,
"And cast around a wildness drear."

The just touching on the cause of his sorrows, the reluctance he shews to mention the smallest circumstance, and his abrupt manner of getting quit of the idea, are strokes of nature and genius which the Author very seldom displays. "*Those*," l. 11. is perhaps an error of the press: as it stands at present, it gives an incorrectness to the passage, which spoils the beauty of the thought.

In the second Tale, Laura, being prevented by her father from marrying Edward, a person of inferior birth, consents to her Lover's going against the infidels, that by acquiring military glory, and the honour of knighthood, he might return to demand her of her father with more probability of success. After displaying conspicuous bravery, he is wounded and taken prisoner. The report of his death reaches his native country, and Laura, after having long mourned his loss, is at last persuaded by her father to give her hand to De Coucy. The news of this marriage being conveyed to Edward, he abandons himself to despair, and seeks for death in battle, where he is mortally wounded. Feeling his end approach, he gives orders to a faithful domestic to have his heart baked after death, reduced to powder, and presented in a golden urn to his Mistress. De Coucy intercepts the urn, is made acquainted with the whole story, and, inflamed by jealousy, makes his wife drink the powder in a pretended cordial. He afterwards informs her what ~~were~~ the contents of the draught. The information proves fatal

fatal to the hapless Laura, she falls a victim to horror and despair.

In the third Tale, as in the second, are related the fatal consequences of unequal love. Antonio, a person of rank, falls in love with a farmer's daughter, marries her privately, to avoid the consequences of his uncle's resentment, his stolen visits are perceived by the neighbours, and

' Through all the country the report was spread

That beauteous Emma play'd the wanton's part.'

Fired by these reports, her brother, a soldier, seeks Antonio, and attacks him, who reluctantly draws, and kills the assailant in his own defence: the sister dies of grief, and Antonio for ever after lives sequestered from the world.

Such are the outlines of the work before us, which seldom or never rises above mediocrity, and frequently falls below it. The versification is mean and prosaic, whilst the expletives *does* and *did* occur almost in every page. As a specimen, we shall submit to the public, Antonio's rencontre with the brother of Emma.

XXV.

As from the cot with pensive step I went,
An unknown youth with fury crost my way;
With wrathful ire, his eyes on me were bent,
"Thou villain, stop thy course!" I heard him say,

XXVI.

Then from the sheath he drew the glitt'ring blade;
"Defend thyself, unworthy wretch!" he cry'd;
Then aim'd a stroke which me in dust had laid,
But that my weapon drove his point aside.

XXVII.

Redoubled rage now flashing from his eye,
With eager fury full on me he prest:
Seeing that either he or I must die,
My fatal sword I lodg'd within his breast.

XXVIII.

The clashing noise had reach'd my EMMA's ear,
And with her mother forth she wild did run:
Ah me! what sounds did then ANTONIO hear—
"Alas, my brother! ah, my wretched son!"

XXIX.

Stiffen'd with horror, all aghast I stood,
My look expressive of my deep despair;
First on the youth, now weltring in his blood,
Then fix'd on EMMA, my unhappy Fair.

XXX.

She from her brother's bleeding corse was torn,
And to her mother's cottage safe convey'd;
Her tender mind by cruel conflicts torn,
A settled sorrow on her vitals prey'd.

XXXI.

XXXI.

By slow degrees it sapp'd the springs of life,
Pining consumption brought her to her grave;
No healing balm could preserve my wife,
Vain was the medicinal art to save.

The lines "written on the fatal *event which happened in
" Leadenhall-street, 18 January, 1782," contain much
piety, but no poetry.

There is taste in the frontispiece prefixed to Albert.

ART. VI. *An Historical Sketch of Medicine and Surgery from their
Origin to the present Time; and of the principal Author's, Disco-
veries, Improvements and Errors.* By W. Black, M. D. 8vo. 5s.
boards. Johnson.

IT has been long since observed that history, whether of
civil transactions or of the arts and sciences, is a work as
difficult as it is useful. To be instructive, the Historian
should possess extensive knowledge, and the art of impressing
that knowledge upon the mind of his Reader by profound
and masterly reflections. And to be entertaining, he should
be capable of arranging his materials with perspicuity and
address, and of recommending his narration by expressive
and elegant language. Did not every man acquainted with
the writings of Haller, find himself disposed rather to won-
der at what he has performed, than to wish that he had per-
formed more; it might be regretted that a writer so eminent
for the qualifications we have just enumerated, did not di-
gest his observations on medical Authors into the form of an
history, instead of that of a catalogue. But without in-
dulging in speculations, which now can never be realized,
let us proceed to consider how far Dr. Black has displayed
the requisites of an Historian in the performance before us.
And we apprehend that if he should be found deficient,
the title which he has chosen, and under which he
seems desirous of sheltering his imperfections, (if any should
be detected,) will not be deemed a plea of sufficient force to
soften the severity of criticism. For if such pleas were to be
admitted, the whole difficulty of composition would be re-
duced to the invention of title, and the only barrier by
which multitudes are with difficulty restrained from pouring
forth their immature conceptions being removed, produc-
tions of merit would be buried under heaps of ignorance and
absurdity.

The sketch before us consists of about 300 pages, of these

* The burning of Mr. Woodmason's children.

nearly the half are taken up in tracing the progress of medicine to the middle of the 15th century. Here, we think, an important error occurs in the arrangement, the space allotted to the antients being, beyond all proportion, too large. And there is a still more material disparity between the former and the latter part of this performance. The tenets of the antients are described with tolerable accuracy and perspicuity; the attention of the Reader is seldom indeed roused by acute or learned remarks, and he finds as he proceeds, little to praise, and not much to blame. Of this first part the following quotation, which is the conclusion of the accounts of the opinions and practice of Hippocrates, is by no means an unfavourable specimen.

'Modern Anatomists cannot avoid pronouncing the Anatomy of Hippocrates to be gross and imperfect. Human bodies had not then been dissected, and his knowledge upon this subject (except perhaps the Osteology) was acquired by opening animals of the brute creation; some of whom, as the Ape and Monkey in their internal structure, bear a strong resemblance to man. Notwithstanding such radical impediments to obtain correct Anatomical ideas, he has given a coarse superficial description of the Lungs, Heart, Stomach, Liver, Spleen, Kidneys, Ureters and Bladder, and of the large trunks of the Blood-vessels. The Osteology excels every other part of his Anatomy. He says nothing more of the Muscles than that they are instruments of motion. He knew that the brain was the primary spring of motion and sensation: the blood too he knew nourished the body, and he imagined was the source of heat; but he was totally unacquainted with the rotatory circulation of that fluid. He said that the rudiments of male and female embryos were contained in the semen of both sexes.

'Hippocrates's language in general is unaccommodately concise, and from that cause often obscure: it is far inferior in composition or elegance to some of his predecessors, or to many who succeeded him. There are contradictions and simpy remarks, besides a confused medley of several diseases, unknown to and undescribed by posterity, which gives room to believe, that additions and alterations have been made after his death, and that some parts are spurious. In many places, we must confess, he teems with useful maxims and information. In attending to diseases, throughout all their changes and recanders, he was vigilant and indefatigable, his judgment profound and correct. His conclusions and predictions are, notwithstanding, often built upon a single symptom; but to preface future events, in conformity to his own rules, a more comprehensive survey should be made of the disease, the remaining powers of the constitution, and the probable success to be expected from Medicine. His Aphorisms begin in the usual stile, of which I before gave a specimen. "*Vita brevis, Ars longa, occasio preceps, experientia fallax, judicium difficile,*" &c. The Latin is put in place of the original Greek, which is still more compendious, and the diction adorned with greater majesty. Throughout, his language is close and compressed; and on

on most subjects he is defective in arrangement, perspicuity, and elucidation. To beginners in Medical Studies he would be dry and frequently unintelligible. His writings resemble rather a register or a store house of solid facts heaped together, than a pleasing narrative. He may, I think, be compared to our Bacon, Lord Verulam: the one is in Physick what the other, in modern times, was in Philosophy. Hippocrates first pointed out the true road to arrive at Medical knowledge, and made a beginning in almost every branch of Medicine, although he brought none to perfection. In so short a time he did wonders for one man: but the fabric of Physick was infinitely too large and extensive for a single person to finish. Hippocrates has the immortal honour of having furnished the first model, which others in the course of successive ages have imitated and greatly surpassed.

Hippocrates describes the duty and office of a Physician, and lays down rules for his deportment and manners. He practised in every sphere of healing, he acted occasionally as Physician, Surgeon, Apothecary, Accoucheur, and even as a Nurse: it appears too, that he travelled through most of the Greek towns in the exercise of his profession. Athens decreed him a golden crown, and sumptuous presents, on account of some eminent service done to that State, when invaded by a pestilential disease. Artaxerxes, an Asiatic monarch, solicited him in pressing terms, and by offers of princely rewards, to pay a visit to his camp, and to direct him how to stop a contagious sickness, which preyed upon his army. Hippocrates, we are told, rejected his offers, because he was the enemy of Greece. Their epistolary correspondence, the authenticity of which has been doubted, is inserted in the works of that venerable patriarch of Medicine.*

The part which relates to the Moderns, seems very inferior in point of execution; whether it was that weariness and disgust lessened the Author's exertions, or that being deserted by Le Clerc and Friend, he could no longer continue the narration without the help of such guides. This latter opinion is very probable, and it is confirmed by an error relating to Galen. We are told, that he described the different species of Hernia with accuracy. Now there is a species of Hernia which Galen did not describe, viz. the Hernia congenita: it has been discovered, or at least, *described with accuracy*, since the time of Le Clerc and Friend*; and this circumstance will perhaps at once account for the particular mistake, and the general superiority of the former part of this Sketch over the latter, which is, in general, jejune, uninteresting, and uninformative. It is also by no means free from narrow prejudices, and erroneous opinions. This censure might be confirmed by numerous instances,

* As indeed Dr. Black himself observes, in his account of Modern Surgery.

but that we may not be too prolix, we shall confine ourselves to a few strictures on one of the most important medical topics, we mean, the Theory of Medicine. "Young Students, it is said, are too frequently misled and abused by systems of turgid sophistry. They find themselves in a situation somewhat similar to the traveller, who in a dark night has been led astray by an ignis fatuus, but on the dawn of light perceives he has wandered astray: they resolve to unlearn and cast away a great part of that specious nonsense, garnished with the name of theory, and to consider those oracles, whether writers or lecturers, by whom they had been misled, either as ingenuous romancers, or perhaps, a few, as self-interested cheats and impudent impostors." In the same strain of pointed contempt, he every where speaks of theoretical speculations, and strongly intimates that they are to be numbered among the most unprofitable and absurd employments of the human mind. Such sentiments are not peculiar to our Author, they are very prevalent among the superficial thinkers of the present day. But it is not difficult to prove, that they are not only erroneous, but lead to pernicious consequences. There are few diseases for which specifics have yet been discovered: now, in all diseases for which there are not specifics, the practice of the physician, unless he prescribes at random, must be influenced by theory, that is to say, he will form to himself certain notions with respect to the nature of the morbid alteration that has taken place in the system; and he will, of course, endeavour to oppose its progress by suitable remedies, concerning the action of which, he will also form certain conjectures. Hence, not only the expediency, but the absolute necessity of cultivating the theory of medicine, appears evident. Every practitioner must have a theory, good or bad. In support of this assertion, we may appeal to those who are thought by many to be pure practical writers, such, for instance, as Sydenham. The whole of his writings, and in particular his observations on the dropsy, shew, that his practice was on all occasions directed by theory.

The language of this performance is still less unexceptionable than the narration and opinions. Every defect of style might perhaps be exemplified from it. The following are a few of the numberless specimens of vulgarisms, misapplied epithets, and grammatical blunders, "Apothecaries are flesh and blood, they have mouths to eat." "It was sufficient to ruffle the temper of Job." "To depress or ruffle the passions." "To disturb the pulsations of the pulse." "Garlick eat he recommended as effectual," &c. "The Mahometan Moors were routed (we suppose for rooted out, or

or exterminated) from Spain." "He ordered nothing cold to be eat nor drank." "Every vestige *were* obliterated." "With the expulsion of whom at the end of the last century, this royal imposition is laid aside." "He who would undertake to execute this arduous task *compleat*." "Ingenious (for ingenious) romancers." The Author calls Buffon "a systematic writer." If he had taken up Dr. Johnson's Dictionary with a determination to use the first epithet that should occur, chance could not have presented to him another so improper to be added to the name of this great enemy and decrifier of all system and method.

From the whole of what has been said, the Reader will readily collect, that little of this performance rises above mediocrity, and much falls below it. To the work is annexed a chart of medical authors.

ART. VII. *Observations on the superior Efficacy of the Red Peruvian Bark, in the Cure of Agues and other Fevers.* Interspersed with occasional Remarks on the Treatment of other Disorders by the same Remedy. Third Edition, with considerable Additions, and an Appendix, containing a more particular Account of its Natural History. By W. Saunders, M. D. F. S. A. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson.

THESE Observations may perhaps be considered as not properly falling under our notice, for two reasons, first, because their date is prior to that of our Review, and secondly, because it appears from the title-page of the present edition, that they must have been very generally diffused; but works of extraordinary utility are entitled to extraordinary distinction, and it may very possibly happen that our publication may make the work in question known to practitioners, whom situation or accident, might otherwise have prevented from obtaining notice of it.

Dr. Saunders thinks it highly probable, if not absolutely certain, that the *Red Bark* is the bark of the larger branches of the *Cinchona Officinalis*. Its sensible qualities, when compared with those of the common Peruvian Bark are, that it is in much larger and thicker pieces, that it evidently consists of three distinct layers, in the middle of which chiefly resides its resinous part, which is extremely brittle, and contains more inflammable matter than any other kind of Bark. The entire piece also breaks in that brittle manner which has been described by writers, as a proof of the superior excellence of the Bark. The middle layer is not easily reducible to powder. The flavour is evidently more aromatic and bitter than that of the *quill* Bark.

The comparative qualities which experiment detects, are,

that it is more soluble than the Peruvian Bark, both in water and spirit—that it contains more resinous parts—that its active parts, even when greatly diluted, retain their sensible qualities in a higher degree than the most saturated solutions of common Bark—that it does not undergo the same decomposition of its parts by boiling—that it is more astringent—and that its antiseptic powers are greater. The most important quality, *viz.* that announced in the title, appears to be proved beyond controversy, by the Author's observations, and the concurrent testimony of many respectable practitioners. But the reasons above-mentioned, though they have not induced us to overlook this treatise altogether, restrain us however from entering into a full detail of its contents. The only objection which captiousness itself can, in our opinion, start against these Observations, is, that the Author might have curtailed the accounts furnished by his correspondents, which, as they contain a repetition of the same propositions, are tedious without being instructive. But there is a remark of Dr. Saunders, which, at the same time that it affords a satisfactory reply to this objection, is so applicable to medical observations in general, that we cannot close this brief article better than by transcribing it.

‘ Being highly sensible of the difficulty of establishing such facts, either on the effects of remedies, or on any branch of medicine which regards the animal œconomy, I have solicited the opinion of many ingenious and attentive practitioners, who, from their situation, have had frequent opportunities of trying the Red Bark. This caution appeared the more necessary, because I am well persuaded, that the love of novelty, and too great a credulity in admitting facts on very doubtful authorities, have corrupted medicine more than any other science, and proved more injurious than the most absurd and fanciful theories, the errors of which are easily detected.’

ART. VIII. *Travels in the Two Sicilies*. By Henry Swinburne, Esq. In the Years 1777, 1778, 1779, and 1780. Vol. I. 4to. 11. 1s. boards. Elmsly.

THERE is not any species of literary composition that furnishes so agreeable and enchanting an amusement, as Voyages and Travels. Interesting scenes of nature, and of human life and manners, and these shifting in quick succession, form the most delightful picture that can be conceived to the mind of man, which cannot remain untouched by the situations of his fellow-men, or by the various appearances of creation, when they are described with that sensibility and infectious sympathy, which so naturally spreads

spreads from breast to breast, and distinguishes works of genius from dull gazettes, and contemptible imitations of approved writers. The writers of *Travels* in the present times, are innumerable. But few, if any of them, equal the variety, the novelty, and the bold and interesting description, that we find in the travellers of the fifteenth, the sixteenth, the seventeenth, and the early part of the present century. The more striking and obvious features of nature being already described, a timid and cold genius passes over what is most beautiful and sublime in the regions which forms the subject of his observations, and pries into the obscure and neglected corners, which the noble career of genius leaves as gleanings to the hand of laborious industry. Yet, the operations of nature, whether in the moral, or physical world, are so various and hard to be comprehended, and her features are so majestic and affecting, that a sublime and feeling mind can never want a fit subject for a majestic and affecting narrative and description. Had a thousand *Raphaels* and *Michael Angelos* lived at the same time, we might have had a thousand different pictures of the subjects celebrated by those great artists, and all of them so different from one another, as to be contemplated in succession without disgust, and with fresh delight.

The apology, therefore, which so many travellers make for the dryness and unimportance of their narrations, that the ground over which they pass has been often trod before and nicely examined, can never be the apology of genius. Genius never complains of the irksome necessity of treading in the footsteps of preceding Authors: but either finds something affecting that has escaped their penetration, or by the vigour of imagination gives a novelty of appearance to objects already generally known, and well described.

In the *Travels* of Mr. Swinburne, we find not any marks of such exalted powers. Yet he is well intitled to the praise of an accurate, judicious and learned observer, and in some instances, to that of an agreeable and interesting writer. If, in the greater part of his work, he is contented with the satisfactory dryness of an authentic Gazette, he deserves, however infinitely better of the republic of letters than those frivolous travellers, whose ambition it is to emulate the idle prattle of a sprightly morning paper, who interweave a thousand pleasing impostures with half a dozen real facts, and who enrich their barren descriptions from printed books.

The scene of Swinburne's travels is a corner of the world, which has often attracted the attention of mankind by its

moral, political, and physical revolutions, and never more than at this moment, when the great agents of nature, fire and water, have operated a considerable change on the face of this part of the globe, and interested the world in the inexpressible sufferings of thousands of unhappy mortals. The Reader perceives that it is the southern parts of Italy to which we allude, where the elements ferment with more than ordinary violence, and where changes in Government have succeeded each other with uncommon rapidity. In this scene the face of things has been so much altered in the course of seventeen centuries, that the descriptions given by the antient classics, can seldom interfere with those of a modern writer. "The later Italian and Latin Authors, as Mr. Swinburne observes, are but little known or read in England, and most of them are rather discussers of detached points of history and geography, than general circumambulatory observers. They were too little acquainted with the laws and customs of foreign nations to be able to form just criticisms upon those of their own country; and without some solid grounds for comparison, a writer will bewilder himself in his reasonings, and betray in each page, that he is blinded and misled by ignorance and vanity."

The Authors who have treated of Mr. Swinburne's subject being thus either little known, or greatly deficient in point of knowledge and extent of observation, he ought not to complain, as he has done, "of the unpromising circumstance of passing over ground, often and nicely examined."

His route is fresh land, and opens a full career for the views of learning and genius. In the work under review, we every where meet with proofs of the former of these: but seldom with any of the latter.

From page thirty to forty we are entertained with a very curious description of the island of Elba, known to the Greeks by the name of Aithalia, and to the Romans by that of Ilva, and renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of history.

From page sixty to seventy the Reader is entertained with a very pleasing description of Neapolitan manners and customs, and particularly of the *Lazarones*, or lowest class of the people, who in the delicious and benign climate of Naples, make a shift to live, not uncomfortably, under all the disadvantages of a despotic Government, without houses, with meagre cloathing, and almost without any labour.

"The fishermen of Santa Lucia are the handsomest men in Naples; they have the true old Grecian features, and such well proportioned limbs, that they might serve for models in any academy of design: they are the most substantial and best lodged portion of the Neapolitan

politan populace. It is true, as most writers assert, that the house-room of this metropolis is very inadequate to the population, which, according to authentic accounts, amounted, at the close of the year 1776, to three hundred and fifty thousand sixty-one souls; and that numbers of these are destitute of house and property. But it is not equally a fact, as they assert, that winter and summer these houseless inhabitants pass their lives in the open air, and sleep in all weathers in the streets. In summer it is very pleasant so to do, but in winter not even a dog could bear the inclemency of the weather, not so much on account of cold, as of wet. When the rainy season sets in, it commonly lasts several successive weeks, falling, not in such showers as we are acquainted with in England, where we have rain more or less every month in the year, but by pailfuls, an absolute water-spout, that carries all before it, and almost drowns the unfortunate passenger who is caught out of doors by the storm. The quantity of rain at Naples is much more considerable than that which falls on the same space of ground in England. Whole months of drought are compensated by the deluge of a day: and besides, the south winds are frequently so boisterous in winter, as to burst open the bolts of both doors and windows. At that rainy time of the year, few are so wretched and helpless as to lie in the street, but most of the vagrants resort to the caves under Capodi Monte, where they sleep in crowds like sheep in a pinfold. As they are thus provided with a dwelling, for which no rent is exacted, they also procure food without the trouble of cooking or keeping house: the markets and principal streets are lined with sellers of macaroni, fried and boiled fish, puddings, cakes, and vegetables of all sorts; where, for a very small sum, which he may earn by a little labour, running of errands, or picking of pockets, the lazaro finds a ready meal at all hours: the flaggon hanging out at every corner invites him to quench his thirst with wine; or if he prefers water, as most of them do, there are stalls in all the thoroughfares, where lemonade and iced water are sold. The passion for iced water is so great and so general at Naples, that none but mere beggars will drink it in its natural state: and, I believe, that a scarcity of bread would not be more severely felt than a failure of snow. It is brought in boats every morning from the mountains behind Castellamare, and is farmed out at a great rent; the Jesuits, who possessed a large capital, as well as the true spirit of enterprize, had purchased the exclusive privilege of supplying the city with it.

Very little suffices to clothe the lazaro, except on holidays; and then he is indeed rawdriely decked out, with laced jacket and flame-coloured stockings: his buckles are of enormous magnitude, and seem to be the prototype of those with which our present men of mode load their insteps. The women are also very splendid on those days of shew; but their hair is then bound in tissue caps and scarlet nets, a fashion much less becoming than their every day simple method. Citizens and lawyers are plain enough in their apparel, but the female part of their family vies with the first court ladies in expensive dress, and all the vanities of modish fopperies. Luxury has of late advanced with gigantic strides in Naples. Forty years ago, the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribbons on their heads, as the

Spanish women do to this day, and not twenty of them were possessed of a cap : but hair plainly dressed is a mode now confined to the lowest order of inhabitants, and all distinction of dress between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is now entirely laid aside. Expence and extravagance are here in the extreme. The great families are oppressed with a load of debt ; the working part of the community always spend the price of their labour before they receive it : and the citizen is reduced to great parsimony, and almost penury, in his housekeeping, in order to answer these demands of external show : short commons at home whet his appetite when invited out to dinner ; and it is scarce credible what quantities of victuals he will devour. The nobility in general are well served, and live comfortably, but it is not their custom to admit strangers to their table ; the number of poor dependents who dine with them, and cannot properly be introduced into company, prevents the great families from inviting foreigners : another reason may be, their sleeping after dinner in so regular a manner as to undress and go to bed : no ladies or gentlemen finish their toilet till the afternoon, on which account they dine at twelve or one o'clock. The great officers of state, and ministers, live in a different manner, and keep sumptuous tables, to which strangers and others have frequent invitations.

‘ The establishment of a Neapolitan grandee’s household is upon a very expensive plan ; the number of servants, carriages, and horses would suffice for a sovereign prince ; and the wardrobe of their wives is formed upon the same magnificent scale ; yet it is a fixed rule, that all ladies whatever, be the circumstances of their husbands affluent or circumscribed, have an hundred ducats a month, and no more, allowed them for pin money. At the birth of every child, the husband makes his wife a present of an hundred ounces, and some valuable trinkets, according to his fortune. Marriage portions are not very great in general ; it does not cost a nobleman more to marry his daughter than it does to make her a nun ; for a thousand pounds will not defray the expence of the ceremonies at her reception and profession : she must have a pension settled upon her, and reserves, besides, a power over her inheritance, in case she shall arrive at any dignity in the convent, and wish to enrich it with buildings, plate, or vestments.

‘ Servants and artificers of the city give from fifty to an hundred ducats with their daughters ; peasants and country workmen go as far as three hundred. Females at and near Naples are esteemed helpless and indolent, and therefore have always twice or thrice as much fortune as their brothers, who have greater resources in their strength and activity. A girl would scarce get a husband, if her lover did not expect to be reimbursed by her portion the sum he had paid away with his own sisters. In the plains, it is customary for a peasant, on the birth of a daughter, to plant a row of poplar trees, which are cut down and sold at the end of seventeen years, to make up a fortune for her. The proverbial benediction of *Figli maschi*, Male children, which a Neapolitan gives a woman when she sneezes, is founded on the great facility with which the common people provide for their sons : as soon as they can run about

that they are able to earn their bread, while their sisters remain idle at home, or beg till they are old enough to attract the notice of the men.'

In different parts of this volume, we have an account of various remains of ancient manners, customs, fashions, opinions, and even of the contour of the ancient Grecian and Roman features. From page 132 to 135 we meet with several curious conjectures concerning the origin of Italy, which some have ascribed to fire, others to water. From page 163 to 173 there is an accurate and ingenious account of the field of battle, and the action itself, at Cannæ. In page 180 Mr. Swinhurne presents us with an amusing representation of the cheerful minners of the inhabitants of Trauni.

From page 255 to the end of the volume, among many observations of little importance to any person who is not a professed virtuoso, we find entertaining anecdotes of the colonies from Greece that, long before the building of Rome peopled, cultivated and refined the southern parts of Italy: the Tarentines, the Crotonites, the Sybarites, &c. &c.

At page 220 we are surprised with the following account of Dog-eaters.

'This town (meaning Casalnuovo) contains about four thousand inhabitants, noted for nothing but their taste for dogs flesh, in which they have no competitors that I know of, except their neighbours at Lecce, and the newly discovered voluptuaries of Otaheite. We did not see one animal of the canine species in the streets; and woe be to the poor cur that follows its master into this cannibal settlement! I could not prevail upon my conductor to own whether they had any stock of puppies, as of sheep; or took any pains, by castration or particular food, to fatten and sweeten the dainty before they brought it to their shamblers. I have since procured some information on the subject from impartial persons, and find that the people of this neighbourhood are looked upon by the rest of the kingdom as dog-eaters; and that it is certain that, both at Lecce and Casalnuovo, many of the lower sort relish a slice of a well fed cur. At both places tanners kidnap dogs, and tan their hides into an imitation of Turkey leather, with which they supply the gentlemen of the neighbouring cities, who are nice in their slippers. This demand for false Morocco occasions the slaughter of many dogs, and no doubt the custom of eating their flesh began among the needy tanners: hunger and experience have taught their countrymen to consider the discovery as a very beneficial one. At Bari and Francavilla, horse-flesh is said to be publicly sold in the market; and the tail left on, to shew the wretched purchasers what beast the meat belonged to. The wits among the populace nickname these shambling horses *Caprio ferrato*, i. e. a shod Deer.'

From page 280 to 290 the English Reader is moved with indignation at the oppression of the Calabrian Barons, with compassion for the misery of their tenants, and with thank-

fulnes

fulness to Providence when he compares his own situation with theirs.

' At Roseto, which is but a poor place, I was very hospitably received by a priest. The old man plied me with many questions concerning Naples, England, and America; and, in return for my readiness in gratifying his curiosity, entered with great good sense into a detail of the manners and customs of his own country, and informed me of many particulars I was an entire stranger to. I learned from him, that population is daily decreasing within the circle of his knowledge, from many causes arising out of the general government of the kingdom, of which he acknowledged himself an incompetent judge; and also, from many others that were within his sphere, and were daily felt by him. He attributed, but me thinks without sufficient grounds, this progress of depopulation to the custom followed by the Calabrians, of never marrying beyond the limits of their own township, which he thought perpetuated defects and disorders among them, and from a want of proper crosses in the breed, ended in barrenness and the extinction of families. By these means all the peasants of a village are nearly related. The marriage portion of a girl depends upon the wealth and numbers of the family, and generally consists of a piece of vineyard, or a single fruit tree, among which the mulberry holds the first rank for honour and profit.

' The common mode of letting farms of baronial or ecclesiastical estates throughout Calabria, is by a lease of two years, with many clauses and restrictions. Proprietors of land of plebeian rank extend the term to six years, and allow the tenant the liberty of cutting a stipulated quantity of wood, on condition of his fencing off an equal portion to spring up again.

The Barons are in general very far from considering themselves as the protectors, the political fathers of their vassals, but encroach so much on the commons and the cultivated grounds, for the sake of extending their chace, that the peasants have neither room nor opportunity to raise sufficient food for their support; they therefore fly to the mendicant and other orders of friars, and take the religious habit to procure a subsistence. The father of a family, when pressed for the payment of taxes, and sinking beneath the load of hunger and distress, *va alla montagna*, that is, retires to the woods, where he meets with fellow-sufferers, turns smuggler, and becomes by degrees an outlaw, a robber, and an assassin.

These are the portions of this book which appear to us fitted to afford general entertainment. There are others, which, though by no means generally interesting, yet will yield both amusement and useful instruction to a certain class of Readers. Such are Mr. Swinburne's account of the natural productions of Naples, its exports and imports, his observations and anecdotes concerning the agriculture of the Neopolitans, and the culture of the famous Puglian wool.

We come now to the most disagreeable part of our task, which is, to animadvert upon a very considerable portion of this publication, which is neither amusing nor useful, and which,

which, in our opinion, betrays a want of taste and judgment:

The genealogical table of the sovereigns of the Two Sicilies; the very minute geographical view of the kingdom of Naples, which consists wholly of an infinite number of proper, and for the most part unknown names. The chronicle, or what Mr. Swinburne calls a short sketch of the history of the kingdom of Naples; his details concerning the barbarians who over-ran, and succeeded each other on the thrones of the different principalities of Italy: these, notwithstanding Mr. Swinburne's apology, appear to us wholly uninteresting to all persons, who are not Neapolitans, and indeed only interesting to a very few of them. Mr. Hume the historian hurries over the period of the *heptarchy*, and encourages his Reader under this disagreeable task with the prospect of speedily conducting him from a series of battles, which MILTON compares to the skirmishes of kites and crows, to scenes that will afford both entertainment and instruction. Mr. Swinburne, without any necessity or propriety fatigues his Reader with meagre chronicles, that cannot be read either with patience or profit.

There are also in these travels many stories of the credulity and superstition of monks as well as of the catholic laics, with which every common traveller stuffs his diaries; and many descriptions of places and antiquities, which are neither interesting in themselves, nor form any close connection with objects that are.

Respecting the stile of this publication, although it is generally perspicuous as well as nervous, it is not wholly free, notwithstanding the professions of the Author in his preface, from an affectation of *learned phrases* and *sounding words*. Of this kind are the words *circumambulatory*, *cupidity*, *exhaustion*, *cataclysm* for deluge or inundation, *veterinarian*, *precocity*, with a few others.

On the whole, however, the learning, and the accuracy of this Author merit considerable praise: and of his work it may be said in general, that it is more fitted to gratify curiosity, than to amuse the imagination, or interest the passions.

ART. IX. *An Opinion given (by order of Government,) upon a Memoir concerning a Method practised by the late M. Doucet, in the Cure of a Disease incident to Lying-in Women, called the Puerperal Fever, Read at a Meeting of the Royal Society of Medicine, held at the Louvre, the 6th of September 1782. Translated by N. Maillard, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.*

A Report made by Order of Government, &c. translated from the French. To which are added, Notes containing a View of the Nature and Causes of this alarming and fatal Disease. By J. Whitehead, 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

THE Puerperal Fever has of late years engaged much of the attention of Medical writers; but their success in finding a successful mode of treatment has been by no means proportional to their diligence in seeking it; for it is certain that almost all who have been attacked by this disease, have fallen victims to it. The method of cure here recommended, and which we are told, has never yet failed, is very simple. It consists in giving immediately upon the attack fifteen grains of ipecacuanha in two doses, at the interval of an hour and half, and repeating the same process next day, whether the symptoms have abated or not; should the disease continue in the same state, it is to be repeated the third and even the fourth day. The effect of the ipecacuanha is kept up by a potion composed of two ounces of oil of sweet almonds, one ounce of syrup marsh mallows, and two grains of kermes mineral.

M. Doucet was led to this discovery by mere accident. He happened to be present when a woman newly brought to bed, was attacked by the disease. It commenced with vomiting. M. Doucet happily seizing the indication, prescribed the mode of treatment which we have mentioned, and with success.

The report is in the highest degree favourable. It is signed by Mrs. de Lassone, Geoffroy, Lorry, Mareduyt, Vicq, D'Azyr, Jeanroy, Hallé.

Of the two translations, the latter though by no means unexceptionable in point of language is evidently the best. It is also recommended by several pertinent and judicious notes, taken for the most part from our English writers on the Puerperal Fever. There is however a circumstance in favour of Dr. Maillard's translation which our duty obliges us to notice, and which we doubt not will have its due weight with the public. It is this; while Dr. Whitehead could only dilate his translation and preface and notes, into a shilling pamphlet, his competitor has had the ingenuity to expand his into an eighteen-penny publication, without the aid of any of those additions.

ART. X. *Practical Observations on Amputation, and the After-treatment*: To which is added, an Account of the Amputation above the Ankle with a Flap: the whole illustrated by Cases. By Edward Alanfon, Surgeon to the Liverpool Infirmary. 8vo. 5s. boards. Johnson.

THE new lights thrown upon the modern practice of Surgery in this ingenious performance, and the importance of the improvements suggested in it, with respect to an operation, unfortunately too common, and which even the least skilful surgeon thinks himself qualified to perform, cannot but recommend it to the serious attention of every practitioner, anxious for the advancement, as well as the dignity of his art.

The three points in which our Author professes to differ from the established mode of practice, are in the application of the tape, the quantity of skin saved, and the manner of executing the double incision.

The first Chapter treats of the first of these articles. Mr. Alanfon after having quoted the opinions of some eminent writers, who have proposed the use of the tape, or circular band, previous to the first incision, gives his reasons for rejecting it. This tape hath indeed always appeared to us as superfluous; for if it be used as a guide to the knife, it is certainly totally unnecessary, since we have always observed, that beside the prolonging of the operation, it frequently came in the way of the operator's second incision, and was therefore rather an embarrassment than an assistance to him. If it be used as a tight band, to give a firmness and compactness to the muscles, which in subjects who undergo amputation, are often loose and flabby, and which appears to us the only rational principle upon which it has been practised, this end, as Mr. Alanfon judiciously observes, may be answered as well if not better, by an *assistant grasping the limb circularly with both hands, and firmly drawing the skin and muscles upwards.* We therefore perfectly agree with him in rejecting the tape as unnecessary; and indeed, notwithstanding the great authorities that have recommended it, there are many surgeons in this town who have totally laid it aside for many years past, and others whom we recollect never to have used it.

The next Chapter treats of the double incision, and suggests a new process to be pursued after the skin and adipous membrane are cut through, or in other words after the first incision is made, before you proceed to the second incision, or to the cutting through of the muscles. This refers to the second point mentioned, in which the Author differs from others. viz. the quantity of skin saved. This

is done; in the Author's own words, *by separating the cellular and ligamentous attachments with the point of your knife, till as much skin is drawn up, as will with the united assistance of the particular division of the muscles hereafter recommended, fully cover the whole surface of the wound with the most perfect ease.* Although Mr. Alanson's style be in general, simple, clear, and easy, as that of a man of science ought to be, and although it be free from those gross inaccuracies and solecisms, with which several modern writers in our art, delight to embellish their pages, yet we could have wished that he had described this material part of his operation more fully and with greater precision. It consists, after the first circular incision is made, as we judge from seeing the operation performed in Mr. Alanson's way in town, in dissecting and separating with your knife, (why the point of it only,) the skin and adipous membrane all round the limb, from their attachment to the subjacent muscles, and in continuing this separation up the limb, till you judge from your eye that a portion of skin and adipous membrane shall be detached sufficient to cover fully the whole surface of the subsequent stump.

The third point, in which Mr. Alanson judiciously differs from others, is the direction of the second incision, through the muscles, which however in Mr. Alanson's mode of operating, may with greater propriety be called the third incision. He objects, and with much reason, to the direction given of dividing the muscles in a circular and perpendicular manner down to the bone. Instead of this, he proposes to turn the edge of the knife obliquely upwards, and to cut through the subjacent muscles in that same oblique direction, by which the bone will be laid bare about three or four fingers breadth higher than is usually done.

By this oblique division of the muscles, the stump will form a kind of conical cavity, the apex of which will be upwards at the point where the bone is sawed off, and the basis downwards. This mode of dividing the parts is particularly advantageous in amputations of the thigh, where disagreeable projections of the bone often make their appearance, and is certainly *best calculated to prevent what is called a sugar loaf stump.*

The third Chapter treats of the ligature of the arteries. The Author reprobates the practice of including the nerve in the ligature, and advises the use of the tenaculum first recommended by Mr. Bromfield. Of whatever consequence this may be supposed to be in other modes of operating, it becomes more particularly useful to attend to it in Mr. Alanson's.

In the second Part of his work, Mr. Alanson describes the After-treatment. The improvements our Author hath made in this branch of our art, appear to us to be the most important and useful of any he has proposed, inasmuch as they tend to the improvement of other operations as well as the one in question, and to the improvement of surgery in general. The reasoning upon them is clear and convincing, and the arguments, well supported by facts, unanswerable. We shall give a short account of them. First, he draws the skin forward, and fixes it there by a circular bandage at the time of the operation. In this indeed, notwithstanding a contrary practice be advised by some other writers, he is not singular: but in substituting a flannel to a linen roller for this purpose, he is entirely original. It is a practice we recommend to every one, and their experience will soon convince them of its utility. Mr. Alanson rejects with great propriety the application of dry lint to the stump, considers it as an extraneous body, and often productive of pain and irritation. And here we cannot but observe by the way, that it was just before the middle of this century when the indiscriminate application of dry lint to all fair wounds was introduced as the softest, mildest, and most comfortable dressing that could be used. This was considered at the time as one of the greatest improvements of modern surgery, in rendering the practice of it simple and easy. Now we see on the contrary towards the latter end of this, same century, that the practice introduced about the middle of it is judiciously and from experience exploded. We seriously recommend all that the Author hath said upon this subject to attentive consideration. Indeed in Mr. Alanson's peculiar mode, the use of dry lint to the sore would frustrate entirely his intention, which is next, to bring the separated skin forwards, and to place it in immediate contact with the surface of the stump. He retains it there by long slips of linen or lint, spread with cerate or any soft ointment, meaning to excite the parts by what is called the first intention, or by the adhesive inflammation; in which it appears from his own cases, and from many respectable testimonies, that success has often been obtained. Mr. Alanson prefers making his line of union between the edges of the skin rather across the face of the stump, than in the direction of its perpendicular axis.

The Author concludes his second part with some observations on the air of hospitals, which as they materially concern the public good, and plead the cause of humanity, we shall make no apology for transcribing.

1. No ward should be inhabited for more than the space of four months.

months together; for it is impossible to keep a room healthy, that is constantly crowded with diseased people: the walls should then be scraped, white-washed, and every other necessary means used for the purification of the air, before the re-admission of patients.

2. The bed-sticks should be made of iron, to prevent the lodgment of vermin, and the more easy absorption of putrid matter.

3. The bedding should be more frequently changed, than is usually done; and the bed-ticks stuffed with chaff, hay, cut straw or materials of such easy expence, as to admit of their being frequently changed.

4. Where an hospital is conveniently situated for the purpose, all the patients that are able, should carry out their bedding, and expose it in the open air, for several hours every day when the weather will permit.

5. On the days of admission, those patients that have inhabited foul ships, jails, cellars or garrets, workhouses, or other infected places, or whose cloaths are dirty, or suspected to contain vermin, before they are suffered to appear in the ward, should first be stripped, and washed in the warm bath, and afterwards clothed with proper dresses, provided at the expence of the charity; by which means the evil of importing infection, so detrimental to the salubrity of every hospital would be greatly remedied.

6. The dresses for the men may consist chiefly of a clean shirt, jacket, and trowsers; for the women a shift, petticoat, and bed-gown; the rest may be supplied from their own cloathing, which will easily admit of being first well cleaned.

7. The infected clothes should be baked in an oven constructed for the purpose; by which all vermin and infection will be destroyed, and the clothes may be returned clean to the patients, when they are discharged the hospital.

8. The patients when received, on the days of admission, should be placed in the wards, which have been last ventilated, and not in those that have been long inhabited; where it may reasonably be presumed, the air is considerably tainted.

9. All incurable or infectious cases, should be refused admittance; and amongst these should be classed old chronic ulcers of the legs, and particularly those in which there is a great loss of substance, for these seldom remain long healed, hence most hospitals are so crowded, that the intention of the charity is perverted, as the air is rendered unwholesome.

10. All offensive gangrenous, or other putrid sores, should be placed in distinct rooms provided for that purpose, and not suffered to taint a whole ward.

11. There should be particular rooms provided for those patients, who are the subjects of operations; they should be in the most airy situation; never long inhabited, and alternately cleaned and ventilated, as before advised.

12. An hospital should never be crowded on any account, and always of so large a construction, that some part of the building may at all times be uninhabited, for the purpose of white-washing, ventilation, &c.

13. When

13. When any person has been afflicted with a putrid disease, or confined to bed for a length of time, let the bed be emptied, and the bed stocks, the bed, the sheets, and other linen be washed, and the rest of the bed clothes, exposed for some time in the open air, and baked in the oven before they be used again.

14. Let the nurses see that every patient's hands and face are washed every morning; and their feet once a week.

15. Let the nurse of each ward be liable to a fine, to be deducted from her wages, if some of the windows in her ward, are not kept open, during a stated number of hours every day.

16. To every infirmary, particularly where the wards are crowded, a house in the country well situated, and at a convenient distance should appertain; without such assistance many of the patients must perish, who would be easily and certainly preserved; and it will be found, (as may without difficulty be demonstrated,) the best policy in the trustees of an Infirmary, to provide such an Appendix.

Mr. Alanson then proceeds to recommend the Amputation with a flap above the ankle, and advises the same in the Amputation even of fingers and toes. There is nothing particularly new in this part, though it contains many useful practical observations upon this mode of operating.

The Writer next gives an account of an Amputation of the arm at its articulation with the scapula, successfully performed; and takes this opportunity of introducing some judicious remarks on the exfoliation of cartilages.

The rest of his book contains chiefly histories and cases from many respectable persons in the profession in support of his improved method, and concludes with a few observations tending to shew the utility of his doctrine with respect to the discarding of dry lint, after other operations, as well as after amputation.

Such are the various improvements suggested in Mr. Alanson's work in the mode of amputating; and the subsequent treatment. Experience must determine in a matter of such importance, how far his practice should be followed in all its particulars. The trials made of it in London have been frequently, though not always successful; and from the accounts we have been able to collect, the success has been more general than the failure. Neither do we venture to ascribe the failure in any particular instances to the mode itself, or to the principles on which it is founded; it may depend on other, and totally foreign causes. Be that as it may, Mr. Alanson deserves the warmest thanks of the public for his attention and assiduity; and we recommend his book to the perusal of all the professors of the art.

ART. XI. *The History of the Progress and Termination of the Roman Republic.* By Adam Ferguson, L. L., D. Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh. Illustrated with Maps. 4to. 3 vols. 2l. 12s. 6d. boards. Cadell.

(Concluded from our last.)

IN our former article we had occasion to mention a defect in the plan of the work before us; and while we commended the spirit of philosophy exhibited by the Author, we ventured to censure him for neglecting to adopt the practice of the antients, who were fond of putting speeches into the mouths of great actors. It now remains for us to conclude what we have to observe concerning these volumes.

The manner of Dr. Ferguson is peculiar and his own. In this respect it has merit; but we imagine that he does not manage his imagination with sufficient prudence. His march is unequal; and after periods of brightness, there are passages which are cold and languid. While he sustains not, an uniform elevation, he often sinks below the historic grandeur. This perhaps may be a consequence of inequality of temper, and of the extreme length of the task in which he was engaged. At least we are not disposed to impute it to any ignorance of composition, or to an incapacity of attaining that art and skilfulness which practice and habit have communicated to very inferior writers. In works, however, which approach to perfection, the regular and supported polish to which we allude is indispensably necessary; and it is the province of criticism to remark imperfections of this kind.

In the great outline of his work, Dr. Ferguson shews his discernment; and he wrote after having meditated upon his subject with an anxious care. His labour has been painful; and the guides he has followed were, in general, intelligent and faithful. But while antient Authors were, doubtless, the authorities by which he ought to have been directed, he might yet upon many occasions have been successfully assisted by what modern writers have collected upon his subject; and his want of attention to this aid is a blemish of a considerable nature. For by this means he would have added both to his facts and to his reasonings. It is prudent in Authors of all descriptions to take every possible help and assistance; and in turning over books even of an indifferent character, hints may be presented which are highly important and curious. When a man of talents has consulted every record and voucher, he may, indeed, have attended to many writings that are preposterous and absurd, but he has surveyed every thing which it was proper for him to see; and it may be said, that he has obtained a dominion over his subject.

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One duty, and perhaps, the most difficult in a historian, is to weigh the contending evidence of writers, and to preserve himself alike from a weak credulity and a distrustful scepticism. In this respect, we must commend the prudence of our Author; and it has not escaped our remark, that with regard to the conspiracy of Cataline, he has very properly preferred the authority of Cicero to that of Sallust. Yet it is worthy of observation, that from the writings of Cicero, he has not perhaps extracted all that was useful upon this occasion, any more than upon other topics of still higher moment.

To please, is the leading object of the common historian; but our Author is more inclined to instruct. For this he deserves praise, as it has become too fashionable to convert history into romance. The agreeable or the graceful historian may delight most generally, but his fame cannot last long. He dazzles like a meteor, and is as transitory. The useful historian on the contrary, rises slowly into reputation; but his reputation is founded on a rock, and is as permanent as the facts he records.

In his transitions, we do not conceive that our Author is always sufficiently artful. The Reader is not uniformly prepared to pass from one object to another. There thus results an abruptness, and even a harshness that is disagreeable. This deficiency in the texture of the piece, gives it an unfinished aspect. We glide not pleasingly along upon the stream of his narration: we often feel the want of that happy art which connects together circumstances and incidents the most opposite and the most discordant. But, indeed, few of our historical writers have attended to this beauty; and we find it not in any considerable degree, in Hume, in Lyttelton, or in Robertson.

With regard to the motives of great actors, Dr. Ferguson has been remarkably solicitous to unfold them. This is a most valuable branch of the historic department. A writer who exhibits only naked facts is a compiler of gazettes or a chronicler. He gives us a skeleton from which we are generally to turn with disgust. But the historian gives a colouring, a distinction, a character to his figures. He enters into the minds of his personages, opens up the most secret springs of their action, and makes them pass in review before his Reader.

But though our Author is discerning in affairs, and penetrates into the principles which governed the celebrated men who adorned the æra of which he writes the history, yet it does not appear that he is perfectly happy in finishing his portraits or characters. We observe his actors with

greater delight in his narration than when he sets himself formally to paint them. The touches of his pencil are admirable and masterly. They strike with their spirit and likeness; but the pictures are not drawn at full length. There is no trait in the character of Cæsar, Brutus, Pompey, Cato, and Cicero, which we wish not to dwell upon with curiosity. Yet in this we are disappointed; and from the little that is done, we are led to regret, that the artist has not done more. The example of the antients ought here to have been followed by Dr. Ferguson. With what freedom and skill do Livy, Sallust, and Tacitus delineate persons of eminence and consideration!

What our Author has said of Sylla upon the resignation of his power, approaches in our opinion more nearly to a regular historical portrait, than any other description he has attempted of a distinguished personage.

‘ Upon the return, says he, of the elections, Sylla was again destined for one of the Consuls; but he declined this piece of flattery, and directed the choice to fall on P. Servilius and Appius Claudius. Soon after these magistrates entered on the discharge of their trust; the dictator appeared, as usual, in the Forum, attended by twenty-four lictors: but, instead of proceeding to any exercise of his power, made a formal resignation of it, dismissed his retinue, and, having declared to the People, that, if any one had any matter of charge against him, he was ready to answer it, continued to walk in the streets in the character of a private man, and afterwards retired to his villa near Cumæ, where he exercised himself in hunting*, and other country amusements.

‘ This resignation throws a new light on the character of Sylla, and leads to a favourable construction of some of the most exceptionable parts of his conduct. When with the help of the comment it affords, we look back to the establishments he made while in power, they appear not to be the acts of a determined usurper, but to be fitted for a republican government, and for the restoration of that order which the violence and corruption of the times had suspended.

‘ That he was actuated by a violent resentment of personal wrongs, cannot be questioned; but it is likewise evident, that he felt on proper occasions for the honour and preservation of his country, in the noblest sense of these words. In his first attack of the city with a military force, his actions showed, that he meant to rescue the republic from the usurpations of Marius, not to usurp the government himself. When he returned into Italy from the Mithridatic war, the state of parties already engaged in hostilities, and the violence done to the republic by those who pretended to govern it, will abundantly justify his having had recourse to arms. For the massacre which followed, it may be shocking to suppose that the evils of human life can require such a remedy: but the case was singular,

* Appian. Bell. Civil. lib. i.

exposed to disorders which required violent remedies, beyond what is known in the history of mankind. A populous city, the capital of a large country, whose inhabitants still pretended to act in a collective body, of whom every member would be a master, none would be a subject, become the joint sovereigns of many provinces, ready to spurn at all the institutions which were provided for the purposes of government over themselves, and at all the principles of justice and order which were required to regulate this government of others: where the gangrene spread in such a body, it was likely to require the amputation-knife. Men rushed into crimes in numerous bodies, or were led in powerful factions to any species of evil which suited their demagogues. Whatever may have been Sylla's choice among the instruments of reformation and cure, it is likely that the sword alone was that on which he could rely; and he used it like a person anxious to effect its purpose, not to recommend his art to those on whom it was to be practised.

‘ In his capacity of a political reformer, he had to work on the dregs of a corrupted republic; and although the effect fell short of what is ascribed to fabulous legislators and founders of states, yet to none ever were ascribed more tokens of magnanimity and greatness of mind. He was superior to the reputation even of his own splendid actions; and, from simplicity or disdain, mixed perhaps with superstition, not from affected modesty, attributed his success to the effects of his good fortune and to the favour of the gods. While he bestowed on Pompey the title of Great, he himself was content with that of Fortunate. He was a man of letters, and passed the early part of his life in a mixture of dissipation and study. He wrote his own memoirs, or a journal of his life, often quoted by Plutarch, and continued it to within a few days of his death. A work possibly of little elegance, and even tainted, as we are told, with superstition; but more curious surely than many volumes corrected by the labours of retired study.

‘ When tired of his youthful amusements, he sued for the honours of the State; but with so little appearance of any jealous or impatient ambition, that, if he had not been impelled by provocations into the violent course he pursued, it is probable that he would have been contented with the usual career of a prosperous Senator; would have disdained to encroach on the rights of his fellow-citizens, as much as he resented the encroachments that were made on his own, and never would have been heard of but on the Rolls of the Consuls, and in the record of his triumphs. But fortune destined him for a part still more conspicuous, and in which it may be thought, that, although none ever less studied the unnecessary appearances of humanity or a scrupulous morality, none ever more essentially served the persons with whom he was connected.

‘ With respect to such a personage, circumstances of a trivial nature become subjects of attention. His hair and eyes, it is said, were of a light colour, his complexion fair, and his countenance blotched. He was, by the most probable accounts, four years old at the time of the sedition of Tiberius Gracchus, and seventeen at the death of Caius Gracchus; so that he might have perceived at this date the effect

of tribunitian seditions, and taken the impressions from which he acted against them. He served the office of *Questor* under Marius in Africa at thirty-one; was *Consul* for the first time at forty-nine or fifty*; was *Dictator* at fifty-six; resigned when turned of fifty-eight; and died yet under sixty, in the year which followed that of his resignation.

‘ There remained in the city, at his death, a numerous body of new citizens who bore his name: in the country a still more numerous body of veteran officers and soldiers, who held estates by his gift: numbers throughout the empire, who owed their safety to his protection, and who ascribed the existence of the commonwealth itself to the exertions of his great ability and courage: numbers who, although they were offended with the severe exercise of his power, yet admired the magnanimity of his resignation.

‘ When he was no longer an object of flattery, his corpse was carried in procession through Italy at the public expence. The fasces, and every other ensign of honour, were restored to the dead. Above two thousand golden crowns were fabricated in haste, by order of the towns and provinces he had protected, or of the private persons he had preserved, to testify their veneration for his memory. Roman matrons, whom it might be expected his cruelties would have affected with horror, lost every other sentiment in that of admiration, crowded to his funeral, and heaped the pile with perfumes†. His obsequies were performed in the *Campus Martius*. The tomb was marked by his own directions with the following characteristical inscription: “ Here lies Sylla, who never was outdone in good offices “ by his friend, nor in acts of hostility by his enemy‡.” His merit or demerit in the principal transactions of his life may be variously estimated. His having slain so many citizens in cold blood, and without any form of law, if we imagine them to have been innocent, or if we conceive the republic to have been in a state to allow them a trial, must be considered as monstrous or criminal in the highest degree: but if none of these suppositions were just, if they were guilty of the greatest crimes, and were themselves the authors of that lawless state to which their country was reduced, his having saved the republic from the hands of such ruffians, and purged it of the vilest dreg that ever threatened to poison a free State, may be considered as meritorious. To satisfy himself, who was neither solicitous of praise nor dreaded censure, the strong impulse of his own mind, guided by indignation and the sense of necessity, was probably sufficient.

As another specimen of the abilities of Dr. Ferguson, we shall exhibit his account of the death of Brutus.

‘ Brutus himself being cut off from the camp and closely followed, Lucilius, one of his company, to give him time to escape, affecting to personate his general, and falling behind, was taken. This captive, supposed to be Brutus, the leader of the republican army, being conducted to Antony, to whom he was known, met with a recep-

* Vel. Pater. lib. ii. c. 17.

tarch. in Sylla.

‡ Appian de Bell. Civ. lib. i. Plu-

† Plutarch in Sylla, sine.

tion not unworthy of his generous artifice. "You intended," said Antony to those who brought the prisoner, with a politeness which seemed to refute some of the imputations on his character, "to bring me an enemy, but you have brought me a friend*."

Brutus in the mean time, having in the dark passed a brook that ran between steep and rocky banks covered with wood, made a halt, with a few friends, on the opposite side, as in a place of safety. Being yet uncertain of the extent of his loss, he sent an officer to observe the field, and with orders, if any considerable body of the army were yet together, to light a blaze as a signal or token of its safety. This officer accordingly made his way to the camp, and finding it still in the possession of his friends, made the signal; but lest it should not be observed, he attempted to return to his general, fell into the enemy's hands, and was slain.

As, from the signal now made, it appeared to Brutus and the small company who attended him, that the camp was still in possession of their own people, they thought of making their way thither; but recollecting that the greater part of the army were dispersed, they doubted whether the lines could be defended until they could reach them, or even if they should be maintained so long, whether they could furnish any safe retreat. While they reasoned in this manner, one of their number, who went to the brook for water, returned with an alarm that the enemy were upon the opposite bank; and saying, with some agitation, "We must fly." "Yes," replied Brutus, "but with our hands, not with our feet." He was then said to have repeated, from some poet, a tragic exclamation in the character of Hercules: *O Virtue! I thought thee a substance, but find thee no more than an empty name, or the slave of Fortune.* The vulgar, in their traditions, willingly lend their own thoughts to eminent men in distress; those of Brutus are expressed in his letter to Atticus already quoted: *I have done my part, and wait for the issue, in which death or freedom is to follow.* If he had ever thought that a mere honourable intention was to ensure him success, it is surprising he was not sooner undeceived. Being now to end his life, and taking his leave of the company then present, one by one, he said aloud, That he was happy in never having been betrayed by any one he had trusted as a friend. Some of them, to whom he afterwards whispered apart, were observed to burst into tears; and it appeared that he requested their assistance in killing himself; for he soon afterwards executed this purpose in company with one Strato and some others, whom he had taken aside.

* This catastrophé, as usual, set the imaginations of men to work; and many prodigies and presages were believed to have preceded it. A spectre, it was said, had presented itself in the night to Brutus, when he was about to pass the Hellespont, told him it was his evil genius, and was to meet him at Philippi; that here it accordingly again appeared on the eve of the late action.

Amidst the other merits of Dr. Ferguson, it is fit that we should remark, that he has every where scattered throughout

* Plut. in Bruto.

his performance a beautiful morality, and a high approbation of public virtue. While he reprobates the misconduct of ambitious and unprincipled men, he exhibits himself to his Reader not merely in the light of a good historian, but of an excellent citizen. The respect which he pays to probity, candour, and virtue is most becoming and proper; and as his book may fall into the hands of young Readers, it will necessarily contribute to form them for active life, by impressing strongly upon their minds the admiration of whatever is most honourable. The air of scepticism and insincerity which many eminent writers have affected, and the lavish praise they have bestowed upon wicked men, we consider as not only preposterous in itself, but as an argument of the depravity of their own hearts. We can trace somewhat of this libertine disposition in Polybius; and the uniform malignity of Tacitus has been frequently condemned. History can only be said to have attained to perfection, when to the arts and graces of composition, it joins a detestation of the vile and the corrupt, and fires to virtue by a just and liberal panegyric of the wise and the good.

To the observations we have already made, it becomes us to add, that the language of Dr. Ferguson is very open to censure, and that he often deviates from correctness and propriety. Nor will it be useless to subjoin a few examples of his mistakes.

1. 'The Roman people, from their being joint sovereigns of a great empire, became together with their own *provinces*, the *subjects*, and often the prey of a tyranny which was cruel to both.' It is obvious that *provinces* are improperly used in a connection with *subjects*.
2. 'The *vestige* of former movements *were* effaced.'
3. 'By offering the freedom of the city to every *alien* who *crowded* from all the confines of Latium to vote in the assemblies of the Roman people.'
4. 'About the time when the Romans *became* masters of Tarentum, this combination was *become* the most considerable power of the Peloponnesus.'
5. 'Mutually agreeable to *both*.'
6. 'The *minds* of men *beheld* with amazement.'
7. 'Pompey was *quoted* in every harangue as the great support of the empire.'
8. 'He preserved his dignity, by never *committing* his reputation without being prepared, and having concerted a variety of arts by which it might be supported.'
9. 'Were *urging* the state and the people to ruin'
10. 'So provided Milo ventured to *en-counter* with Clodius.'
11. 'This appears to have been a *man* of great moderation.'
12. 'Neither could acquiesce in the same measures of consideration or power which other senators had enjoyed before *him*.'

Faults like these may be pronounced to be trivial. But when their appearance is too frequent, they serve to injure the tone, and the execution of any literary work. Upon the whole, however, the History of the Progress and Termination of the Roman Republic, must be allowed to be a valuable accession to our libraries. If Dr. Ferguson is not so accurate in his reasonings, nor so various in his modes of expression as Mr. Hume, he is yet more candid, and more favourable to the natural and political rights of mankind. If his diction is more obscure, less easy, and less pleasing than that of Dr. Robertson, he is yet more versant in affairs, more learned, and more penetrating in philosophy and manners. And, in fine, if he is not so acute, so witty, so critical, and so brilliant as Mr. Gibbon, he is yet more faithful to his authorities, and more friendly to morality; and whatever religious opinions he may entertain, he does not go out of his way to make an ostentatious parade of them.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For A P R I L, 1783.

POLITICAL.

Art. 12. *A List of the Absentees of Ireland. And an Estimate of the Yearly Value of their Estates and Incomes spent abroad.* With Observations on the Trade and Manufactures of Ireland, and the Means to Encourage, Extend, and Improve them; with some Reasons why Great Britain should be more indulgent to Ireland, in particular Points of Trade. Also, some Reasons and Observations why Absentees should be obliged to contribute to the Support and Welfare of the Country they derive their Honours, Estates and Incomes from. Humbly submitted to the Consideration of the Legislature of Ireland. The Sixth Edition. In this Edition the List of the Absentees are greatly amended, and set forth, as they stood in the Year 1782. To which is added, Notes, and an Appendix, containing some material Transactions that have occurred since the Publication of the former Edition, 1769. With Observations upon them, and the several Acts of Parliament passed since. 8vo. 2s. T. T. Faulkner. Dublin. 1783.

THE energy of the *Irish nation*, roused by an opportune and most successful struggle for the rights of men, will not relapse into inaction after the attainment of so animating an object. The public spirit of that people will now be turned to the arts of peace, and their improvement in agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, will contribute to the prosperity and aggrandizement of the British empire. The publication under Review is an earnest of this rising spirit.

spirit. And the general attention that has been paid to it in Ireland, is a proof of the patriotism of that nation. It has never been printed in England, although it has come to the sixth edition. This circumstance is not unworthy of attention, as it is an evidence that the Irish nation now possesses within itself the springs of government. A writer whose object it is, to influence the powers that rule the kingdom of Ireland, does not think it necessary to make his appearance on the theatre of *London*. He publishes, with propriety, a political treatise on *Irish affairs* in a city, which is now in truth the *Irish capital*.

This pamphlet undoubtedly contains many useful hints to the Parliament of Ireland: but, in our opinion, the attachment of the Author to his country, has carried him, in some instances, into views with respect to commerce that are neither liberal nor just.

The sums of money which is needlessly drawn annually out of Ireland, according to this writer, exceed two millions sterling. But he reckons as a part of this, the travelling expences of Merchants and Traders, and the money expended on the insurance of ships; articles which certainly ought not to have appeared in a list of the grievances of a commercial nation. The want of money, which throws a damp upon all business, the Author ascribes to that wasteful drain of its treasures, which is experienced by the kingdom of Ireland, more than by any other on the face of the earth. It is believed by many; he says, and he himself seems to be of the same opinion, that there is less specie now in the kingdom, than at any time since the Revolution. All its remaining specie, he presages, will soon be carried off, the consequence of which will be a total stop in foreign and domestic commerce, an inability to pay rents, or discharge the public establishment. These are melancholy views. And it may be observed, that not a year has passed since the Revolution, in which the same or similar views were not entertained by some politician or other. On this subject speculators are often more attentive to the expenditure and disbursements of money, than to the channels by which wealth flows into a nation. The Writer of this pamphlet acknowledges that the people of Ireland, in the midst of this gloom, "are much increased in numbers, and that the linen manufactory, which is the staple of Ireland, has encreased *greatly* of late years, and extended itself to most parts of the kingdom, and that there is still room for further improvement and extension." We therefore hope, that the apprehensions of this Author, concerning his country, are not well-founded. Although so great a drain of money is doubtless a loss to Ireland, yet industry may enable that nation to ward off and prevent the great evils which this pamphlet prognosticates. The people of Ireland are represented in this publication as *industrious*. But we have never heard that *industry* is a *general characteristic* of the Irish nation, and we are rather inclined to question this position, because it is acknowledged, page 77, that "one of the greatest obstructions to the benefits and encrease of the manufactures of Ireland, is the frequent riots and combinations among the manufacturers." Commercial habits, large capitals, extensive credit, and a general industry among the people, together with the natural advantages of climate,

climate, soil, situation, and maritime ports, notwithstanding the annual drains of its treasure, which this writer deplores, and labours to prevent, would make Ireland a flourishing kingdom. But until such habits shall be formed, and such advantages established, the fostering care of the opulent and great should be assiduously employed in the encouragement of industry of every kind. Two millions sterling would assuredly operate as a stimulus to agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and arts in general, liberal as well as mechanic. Nor can there be conceived a more delightful amusement than for a gentleman to employ his time at once in the cultivation of his estate, and the aggrandizement of his country. The Author proposes to compel the Irish gentlemen to follow such a conduct, by means of taxes. These, however, would have but partial and limited effects; and until Ireland can allure her sons by objects of ambition, of taste, and of pleasure, equal to any that can be obtained in other countries, the evil of emigration and non-residence, will still remain.

Our Author throws out many useful hints for improving and extending the exports of Ireland: but he regrets that any thing, almost, should be imported, and rather than admit foreign brandy, or English beer, and Scotch ale, recommends the encouragement of home spirits. This is not in the true spirit of extended commerce. It is a taste for foreign elegancies, conveniencies, and comforts; it is the mutual wants of nations, that link them together in the golden chains of commerce, and excite that general industry which promotes it. Banish from Ireland all taste for elegant luxury, and the times will return, when its Princes and Nobles shall intoxicate themselves with oceans of *Uisqueabgh*, and roll in the mire to allay the heat of their feverish intemperance. The most liberal, the most useful part of this publication, is not that which is employed in the discouragement of non-residence, and of foreign imports; but that which teaches the Irish how to improve and make the most of the advantages of their country. Ireland, once become the seat, not only of legislation and government, but of every liberal and mechanical art, emigration and non-residence will cease of course, and strangers from distant countries will visit a young, an ardent, and a flourishing kingdom. The Writer before us contributes not a little towards this important object; when he considers, with so much judgment, what are the countries with which Ireland trades with most advantage or disadvantage; when he teaches how to improve and extend the linen manufacture, the fisheries, the collieries, the silk-manufacture, &c. &c.

On the whole, this Writer deserves high commendation for his public spirit; for that moderation, loyalty, and affection, with which he speaks of the people, and the government of Great Britain; and for the many useful hints he has furnished for the improvement of Ireland, and the general advantage of the British empire.

If this useful performance should come to another edition, we commend to the Author to revise what he has advanced respecting the culture of flax in Scotland. The use of such a wooden frame as he mentions, is by no means common in Scotland, nor is it possible that

that it should be so. And as to what he says of the Scotch dressing their flax by a brush, it requires explanation. The difference should be mentioned, between what he calls *backling*, and *brushing* of flax.

Art. 13. *Considerations on the Provisional Treaty with America, and the Preliminary Articles of Peace with France and Spain.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell.

This small treatise is, in substance, the same with the Earl of Shelburne's speech in the House of Lords in defence of the Preliminary Articles of the Peace. The objections that were made to the Articles in the course of that debate, are here answered. Several points that his Lordship touched upon but slightly are here discussed at greater length, and a few facts are interspersed, which were not mentioned in the House of Peers on the occasion alluded to. Among these facts the following appears remarkable: it is, we believe, but little known in this country. "The Americans had it in contemplation, to have a book composed, containing a distinct and separate history of the sufferings their people had endured; which book was to be made use of in the instruction of their children, to inspire them with a lasting sense of the calamities their fore-fathers had experienced. Such an institution might have prevented a coalition of interests, and the recovery of a real and durable affection. But, since the cessation of hostilities, and the acknowledgment of the independence of the United States, the design has been wholly laid aside." Lord Shelburne said in the House of Peers that he *knew* that 'America felt more obliged to England than to France' (these were his words) in the late pacification. It were to be wished, however, that his Lordship had been able to adduce other proofs of so comfortable a position, than that which has just been specified. We say *his Lordship had been able*; for there is not a doubt that the performance under Review is the production of his pen. And it is justice to say, that it is written with temper, with judgment, with dignity, and in the enlightened and liberal spirit of a Philosophical Statesman well acquainted with history, with commerce, and with human nature; and it cannot fail to eradicate many of the prejudices universally entertained against the terms of the late peace.

Art. 14. *Candid and impartial Considerations on the Preliminary Articles of Peace with France and Spain, and the Provisional Treaty with the United States of America.* By a Country Gentleman. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robson.

The Country Gentleman, after depreciating all the concessions we have made to our enemies, concludes, that by "concentrating the remaining forces of the British empire; by cultivating a liberal and amicable intercourse with Ireland; by the practice of public oeconomy, and the fair encouragement of every species of national industry; by avoiding, as much as honour and sound policy will permit, all ruinous wars and burthensome foreign connections; by a systematic reduction of the national debt; by a less expensive and oppressive mode of collecting the revenue; by a liberal and equal plan of taxation; by a complete and regular support of a powerful navy,

navy, and by the adoption of some other great political desiderata, much may be done to preserve this, a most powerful and illustrious nation, the great directress of commerce, the enlightened school of arts, and the powerful arbitress of nations." This Gentleman, it evidently appears, does not despair of *the Republic*.

Art. 15. *Consolatory Thoughts on American Independence :*

Shewing the great Advantages that will arise from it to the Manufactures, the Agriculture, and commercial Interest of Britain and Ireland. Published for the Benefit of the Orphan Hospital at Edinburgh. By a Merchant. 8vo. 1s. Donaldson, Edinburgh.

The Author of these Thoughts is well acquainted with the principles of commerce, and the interests of nations. His object is, to shew :

1. That the inherent materials of manufacture, climate, soil, and situation, with the natural genius and activity of the inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland, by remaining at home to improve their own country, as farmers, mechanics, and merchants, is a more certain means of advancing the power, interest, and honour of Britain, than by roaming abroad as soldiers and heroes, in quest of distant unhealthy territories, to establish an exclusive trade, and vain expensive sovereignty, or to wrest from unoffending natives their right and property, otherwise to extirpate and destroy them.

2. That the riches of Britain depends on the number of its inhabitants, when properly employed, and consequently all emigrations impoverish the country.

3. That British colonies cannot be governed, or kept in subjection in the manner of Spanish, or other colonies of arbitrary powers, whose government is incompatible with the idea of British liberty.

4. That the present commotions and apparent danger of the inhabitants of Britain, may turn out the happy means of correcting our mistakes, and, by obliging us to improve our natural advantages, terminate in raising us to a great, a virtuous, and a happy people.

5. That however matters may be managed, it is *the consequence of the measures used*, that should with any propriety fall under the observation of those who see not, nor know the motives from whence they proceed; therefore, personal invectives on the character of those, who with British freedom deliver their opinion in the great senate of the nation, on whatever side they speak, are only the effusions of a mercenary mind, or the overflowings of a violent party spirit.

Art. 16. *Thoughts on equal Representation.* 8vo. 1s.

Blamire.

The Author of these Thoughts proves with great force of reasoning, and in a spirited manner, that equal representation never had a place in the British constitution; that it would be inexpedient and impracticable to change the constitution for the purpose of introducing it; and that if such a measure could at any time be justifiable, the present is the most improper time to adopt it.

.Art.

Art. 17. *A Letter to the Livery of London*; tending to Prove that an Equality in the Right of Election is founded upon the same Principles as a more equal Representation; and that the First will be the necessary Consequence of the Latter. 8vo. 6d. Debrett,

The Writer is of opinion, that such is the present corrupted state of our manners and morals, that every man will be influenced by his own private interest, in every question that can be agitated, let it be of the greatest importance, or of the most trifling concern, and that no arguments, either drawn from historical facts, or derived from natural reason, will be able to controvert the prevailing passion of self-interest. He therefore, judiciously avoids all discussions concerning the origin and constitution of Parliament, proves by a very plain and short argument, that if any change in the mode of representation should take place, it would probably be highly detrimental to the interests and privileges of the Liverymen. For the popular Leaders having gained their point of an increased representation of London, would affect to discover by experience, that the calling such a concourse of Liverymen to every election was attended with many inconveniencies, and would be the first to apply to Parliament for a better mode of election.

Art. 18. *An Enquiry concerning the Military Force proper for a free Nation of extensive Dominion*; in which the British Military Establishments are particularly considered. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Blamire.

In this Pamphlet we have a succinct, yet clear account of the introduction of standing armies into Europe, and of the connection between a constitutional defensive force, and civil liberty. The advantages of the English militia are proved from experience, particularly from regiments of militia quelling riots in different parts of England, and above all by the behaviour of the militia on the occasion of the riots in London, when they united in their conduct the discipline and the vigour of regular troops, with the duty of good and faithful citizens. The Author of this sensible performance; after observing that a Minister, who is also a General, may hope to mould a standing army to his private purposes, and that an armed populace is the very instrument for a fortune-hunting demagogue, warns his countrymen to take care that no new proposal shall either forcibly wrest, or insidiously worm from them that *militia*, which is not likely to become either servile to the one, or a dupe to the other.

Art. 19. *A Vindication of General Richard Smith, Chairman of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, as to his Competency to Preside over and Direct an Investigation into the best Mode of providing the Incentive for the East India Company's Honour-board bound Bengal Ships.* To which are added, some Instances to prove that the General is not that Proud, Insolent, Irascible Man, his Enemies would induce the Public to believe him to be. As also, a few serious Hints to the Select Committee, tending to shew, that they are wasting their Time in the Minister of Asiatic Com-

Commerce, whilst the great Outlines and consequential Branches are in Danger of being Over-looked. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

This curious Medley, in which there is a great deal of buffoonry and low humour, contains many ludicrous anecdotes of General Richard Smith, many excellent observations on the history of trade, and trading nations, several shrewd observations on the affairs of the East India Company, and the most ludicrous, but severe attack on the character and conduct of Mr. E. Burke. This Pamphlet appears to be written with a design of defending the public conduct of Governor Hastings, whose character is contrasted with that of Mr. Burke, in the most material instances of their public appearances on the stage of public life.

Although there is no regular design, or arrangement of matter in this curious performance, and that the Author, so far from affecting elegance of style, delights in bluntness, and even coarseness both of sentiment and expression, yet the compass of commercial and historical knowledge it displays, the ludicrous anecdotes it contains, and the droll manner of the Author, render it at once amusing and instructive.

MEDICAL.

Art. 20. *An Enquiry by Experiments into the Properties and Effects of the Medicinal Waters in the County of Essex.* By W. Martin Trinder, L. L. B. at Oxford, and M. D. at Leyden. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1783.

A notion has for some time prevailed, and prevails at present more universally than ever among young physicians, which is attended with bad effects to individuals, and is also very inconvenient to the public. They conceive that it is absolutely necessary, as soon as, or before they enter upon practice, to become candidates for literary fame; not considering either their own qualifications, or that the number of successful authors bears a very small proportion to that of unsuccessful ones. We have introduced this remark in the present article, because we charitably hope, that the Author of the Enquiry before us is both a young writer and a young man. For this circumstance, joined to the general practice to which we have alluded, is the only apology that can be offered for such a publication.

The Preface consists of a rhapsody about temperance and the ladies. The analyses are in the highest degree incomplete and uninformative. The Author has not even attempted to ascertain the specific gravity, or the temperature of the several springs he mentions, or the quantity of the impregnating substances contained in each. Of the name and writings of Professor Bergman, who has introduced so many improvements into the art of analysing mineral waters, he appears to be in profound ignorance. We therefore advise him to suppress his publication, as far as it now lies in his power, and by a diligent perusal of the best authors, and in particular, of the great philosopher we have just named, to endeavour to acquire that knowledge in which he is so miserably deficient, before he attempts to convey information to others.

Art.

Art. 21. *A Treatise on the Synochus Atrabiliosa, a contagious Fever which raged at Senegal in the Year 1778, &c.* By J. P. Schotte, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray.

This is a scientific, practical, and ingenious Treatise on a disorder most uncommon in its appearance, more difficult of cure, and more delaterious in its effects, than any in which European physicians are skilled. So terrible, indeed, was the havoc it made, that it is no little wonder that the Author survived to give the relation, and had strength to collect the experience upon which it is founded. From the uncommon nature of the disorder, the Author had few helps from books, and from the rapidity with which the symptoms ran to the fatal climax, he found it necessary to make speedy use of his judgment. Accordingly, we find every succeeding opinion founded on a previous fact, and the whole Treatise compiled with fidelity and accuracy.

After a minute description of the symptoms, he gives the diagnostics, and terms the disorder *Synochus Atrabiliosa*, a new distinction, and founded on a leading symptom, the discharge upwards and downwards of black bile. He has been the more exact in his definition, as there is no such distinction in any work of Nosology. The disease appears to have been a combination of many antagonist symptoms, and on perusal of its peculiar difference and malignity, many new lights are presented to enable us to therise with propriety on the nature and cure of putrid and bilious disorders. The predisponent causes were, as Dr. Schotte thinks, heat of the weather, and constant use of animal food without fresh vegetables, and the brackishness of the water. Each of these he fully explains, as depending on local circumstances. In his curative prescriptions he is plain, perspicuous, and judicious, but as he found how inefficacious most common remedies were, he directs his attention principally to the prevention of a disorder which happens frequently, in those years when the rains are extraordinarily frequent, heavy, and of a long continuance.

Besides the disease immediately in question, Dr. Schotte makes remarks on the other diseases peculiar to St. Lewis, and gives an accurate description of the situation with regard to climate, with a Journal of the weather during the prevalence of the disease, that nothing may be wanting to the European Reader in his consideration of it. The work ends with a few observations on the gum trade, upon account of which he thinks the possession of fort St. Louis of the utmost consequence to the English nation; it being, however, given up, those remarks come too late, and it is now unnecessary to mention, that in 1777, when Senegal was in the possession of the English, the gum arabic was sold in London at thirty or thirty-five pounds sterling per ton, and now it has risen to the enormous price of two hundred and forty and upwards.

Upon the whole, this treatise will prove very useful in many respects, as the ingenious Author has taken occasion to display learning and medical skill upon a variety of subjects, not immediately connected with the disease of which he professedly writes. He shows an intimate acquaintance with Authors both ancient and modern, and has spared no expence of time and labour in completing his treatise,

treatise, which, however, would have been more agreeable if he had arranged his different subjects methodically, and made his readers refer to, rather than be interrupted by descriptions and cases.

Art. 22. *The Efficacy and Innocency of Solvents candidly examined.* By Robert Home, Surgeon to the Savoy. 1s. 6d. Murray.

Perhaps it were well for the science if physicians felt the disorders which they describe. This Writer may say with the poet, *dolor discretum facit*. Having been for many years afflicted with nephritic complaints, he was induced to make trial of solvents, and in this Pamphlet he gives an account of the manner of using them, and their effects. His experiments are simple and easily understood, and, together with some cases faithfully attested by men of eminence, go to prove the great utility of lixivium in cases of stone, where the stones are of a small size. He takes occasion at the same time to prove, that lixivium have no putrefactive tendency on the system. Of the several solvents most commonly used he prefers Blackie's, and advances nothing for it, or against the others, but what necessary arises from his experiments and trials. The medical world is particularly interested in a question of this importance, for however lithotomy may be rendered perfect as to execution, the prejudices of patients are against it, and at the same time they are apt ignorantly to mistake the primary nephritic symptoms for common spasms, and neglect solvents until they are become unprofitable.

Art. 23. *An Account of a new Method of treating Diseases of the Joints of the Knee and Elbow:* in a Letter to Mr. P. Pott; by H. Park, of Liverpool, one of the Surgeons of the Hospital. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

Few disorders are attended with more disagreeable consequences than affections of the joints, whether white swellings, scrophulous swellings, or the remains of wounds and fractures; deformity and death are the only alternatives. Patients in general cannot bear the idea of amputation, until it be too late. Mr. Park proposes a new method of cure by which the limb may be saved, viz. the total extirpation of the articulation, for which he has given judicious and accurate directions. He has taken notice of the principal objections that present themselves on the mention of this method, and although he has not, and does not pretend to obviate every one, yet his practice is founded on a judgment and cautious taste for experiment, which justly entitle him to attention. He has given an account of two cases in which the operation succeeded, from which Surgeons may safely draw such expectations as to make them turn their thoughts towards the subject. His *modus operandi* is described with great accuracy, and his steps are judicious and natural.

Art. 24. *Practical Thoughts on Amputations;* by R. Minors, Surgeon. 2s. Robinson.

The limits of our Review do not permit us to give a long extract from this Pamphlet, and without that it is not easy to give the Reader a complete idea of the improvements which Mr. Minors has

ENG. REV. Vol. I. April 1783. Z intro-

introduced. His method seems well calculated to avert the alarming symptoms consequent on amputations, such as great pain, spasm, hæmorrhage, fever, inflammation, great tension of the adjacent parts, suppuration, and deformity. He has added a list of cures performed more speedily than usual. His method has met with flattering approbation from some surgeons of eminence, who have successfully carried it into practice. But as his directions are connectedly minute, and at great length, we must refer the Reader to the book itself.

Art. 25. *An Essay on the Symptoms and Cure of the virulent Gonorrhœa in Females.* By C. Armstrong, Member of the Corporation of Surgeons, London, and Accoucheur. 1s. Dilly.

In the multitude of books on the Venereal Disease, we find few or none in which particular consideration is taken of the manner in which the fair sex are affected. Much difference there certainly is not between the symptoms in men and women, but yet enough to direct a writer to a particular chapter on the subject. The present Author treats briefly of the appearances of the virulent gonorrhœa, and a few other symptoms of *lues* in women. As an anatomist he is accurate, and judicious as a practitioner. The gonorrhœa he divides into three species, and gives the diagnostics, and cure of each. There are not many new discoveries in what he has advanced, but he has given several useful hints and cautions to young practitioners, for whom the work appears to have been designed. Mr. Armstrong is a friend to Mercury, which he considers as the only medicine to be depended upon; but in a Treatise on the Venereal Disease in Females, it is particularly necessary to dwell at considerable length upon the effects of Mercury on the female constitution, during the menses, during pregnancy, and in certain idiosyncrasies. In the case of bubo we have little information from him, as he appears to have followed the conditional directions of former writers and practitioners. It were well if certain rules could be adapted to every case of bubo, with regard to suppuration and dispersion. Mr. Armstrong has not been inattentive, nor injudicious, but on this subject he is not so complete as his experience and understanding enable him to be.

Art. 26. *Remarks on Mr. Brand's Chirurgical Essays.* By T. Sheldrake, Junior. 1s. Stockdale.

In this Pamphlet Mr. Sheldrake endeavours to prove, that Mr. Brand, Truss-maker, is the most ignorant, conceited, self-sufficient, mean upstart, that ever disgraced the professions of Surgery and Truss-making! Let Mr. Brand speak for himself. Here are accusations for a swinging pamphlet in answer. We shall only observe, that there is a virulence and illiberality in this Pamphlet, which can only be justified by the full and unequivocal proof that Mr. Brand deserves the bitter reproaches here thrown out against him. We would, however, recommend to both gentlemen, in the language of their profession, to mend this *rupture* between them without the assistance of the press, for the cure can afford but little amusement or information to the public.

Art.

Art. 27. *A Treatise on the Venereal Disease.* By G. Renny, Surgeon to the Athol Highlanders. 3s. Murray.

This is not a complete Treatise on the Venereal Disease, nor is it a review of all that has been said on the subject. It consists of the actual observations of the Author on the leading symptoms, during a long practice, which he confesses himself to have begun with prejudices in favour of many scholastic, but imprudent doctrines. In the course of his practice he soon found it necessary to exert his own judgment, and profit by his own experience, the result of which the Pamphlet before us contains. Mr. Renny has advanced no modes of practice unknown to physicians, but he has set some things in new lights, and has endeavoured to establish certain curative indications, very much opposed, if not nearly exploded. His observations merit attention, as he delivers them with candour and simplicity, and as they are the result of actual experiments, without the interruptions of closet theories. Many of them may perhaps be opposed by old practitioners, but of this the Author was sufficiently aware, and submits them with due deference. His principles and indications of cure are these: that the simple gonorrhœa may be cured by injections in preference to every other method, as the disease is purely local, and rarely if ever succeeded by a confirmed lues; particular irritability causing the running to continue, to be remedied by antiphlogistics, or in some cases, opiates; topical irritation from warts or excrescences, by bougies; irritation in a particular spot of the penis, by unctions of mercurial ointment; debility of the system, also causing gleet, by tonics; inflamed testicle, he observes, is not brought on, as commonly supposed, by the use of astringent injections, but by violent exercise, or exposure to cold; the remedies are a suspensory bandage, antiphlogistic diet, bleeding, fomentations, &c. avoiding the use of mercury. The shagreen he considers as a proof that the general mass is tainted, and prescribes mercury in ointment; as external applications he prefers simple digestive ointment to mercurials or caustic. In phymosis, he recommends antiphlogistics, but in the paraphymosis, is of opinion that the operation must not be delayed. His chapter on buboes is very ingenious; he is an advocate for repulsion, and where suppuration has taken place or been brought on, he prefers cutting out a part of the skin in the opening the tumor, and not allowing the matter to burst out of itself. On the confirmed symptoms his observations are general, and contain little that is new. In every part of the cure, the restrictions are such as will prevent danger from following his methods, which he offers to the Public as the result of practice, and which are therefore to be attended to by the oldest Practitioner, who cannot be ignorant that the shapes in which the Venereal Disease shews itself, must vary with the varieties in our manner of living, and habits of luxury. To the above, Mr. Renny has subjoined *Cases* explanatory of his doctrines, and some remarks on the preparations and exhibition of mercury.

P O E T R Y.

Art. 28. *Ode on the Peace.* By the Author of Edwin and Eltruda. 4to. 1s. Cadell.

The Poem opens with the horrors of the American war. It then paints the joys and advantages of returning peace: its effects on individuals, on commerce, on science, and on arts. Interwoven with the general subject, are the names of André, Asgil, Reynolds, Romney, Hayley, Montagu, &c. whom the Poet has noticed with elegance and propriety. Too great a profusion of imagery glitters through this performance. The fair Author's Muse, if less adorned, would have been more pleasing than in her present gorgeous apparel. And, were we not afraid of stepping beyond the sobriety of Prose-men and Reviewers, we should say that to plunge into the sea of metaphor, and safely to reach the shore, required the skill and strength of Gray himself: feebler bards must often perish in that dangerous ocean. We mean not, however, to say, that such has been the fate of the present Author: to change our metaphor, and adopt the expressions of her favourite poet, though she

"Sails not with supreme dominion
Through the azure deep of air,"

Yet she

—————"keeps her distant way
Beyond the limits of a vulgar fate."

Amidst the exuberance of ornament, marks of genius and taste are evidently discernible. It must likewise be remembered, that the species of transgression of which she is accused, implies a warmth of fancy, from which, when matured by judgment, something better is to be expected. The versification is smooth, easy, and in general correct, and the arrangement of the whole sufficiently judicious.

To preserve correctness in the figurative style is a matter of the utmost difficulty: the present Author has not always been happy in this respect. We shall notice one or two instances. In the first stanza we have the following passage,

"*Loud* on the storm's wild pinion *flow*

The *fullen* sounds of mingled woe,

And *softly* vibrate on the trembling lyre."

Now "*fullen* sounds" cannot be said to be "*loud*," or to "*flow* "*loud*;" they rather imply a *low deep* note: and indeed the Author seems afterwards to have embraced something like this idea, when she says, in the succeeding line, that they "*softly* vibrate." Neither can sounds of any kind be properly said to *flow* "on the "storm's wild pinion," though, in the language of poetry, they may be *borne* on it. In p. 17. the Lady has given *wings* to *stillness*. This we think far from characteristic: and though they are but "*tender wings*," yet none had been better. If stillness is ever to be decked with pinions, it is when she is represented as flying from noise and bustle: but, in the present case, the attribute is peculiarly improper, where she is portrayed as "*drinking the potent strain*"

of

of Hayley, a situation, surely, where flight was out of the question. But we wish not to dwell on the dark side of the picture. The following delineation of peace, dreading lest the rage of war had not perfectly subsided; makes us wish to forget such inaccuracies.

——— 'like th' affrighted Dove, thy form

Still shrinks, and fears some latent storm.'

Though peace and the dove are very old poetical friends, yet the Author has contrived to give a novelty and appositeness to the imagery which at once strike the imagination.

Art. 29. *Annus Mirabilis; or the Eventful Year 1782.* An Historical Poem. By the Reverend W. Tasker, A. B. Author of the Ode to the Warlike Genius of Great Britain, &c. 4to. 2s. 6d. Doddsley.

"The Author," (we are informed in the Preface) "amidst his personal and mental embarrassments, as well as from the haste in which it was composed, is thoroughly sensible, that the Poem is very unpolished and incorrect; and whether it possesses any intrinsic poetical merit, to counterbalance those defects, is, with all due deference, humbly submitted to the determination of the candid Readers."

We have examined Mr. Tasker's Poem with equal attention and candour, and cannot discover any intrinsic poetical merit to counterbalance its various defects. A ray of something like poetry gleams upon us at very distant intervals, but all between is flatness; or unavailing attempts to reach the sublime, which end in rant and fustian. A want of taste and judgment is evident through the whole piece: he knows not how to preserve that equable tone, which, like harmony in colouring or music, is absolutely requisite to the production of excellence. Among many instances of this we shall select the following. The introduction of Neptune, Phœbus, and other Heathen Gods in the same scene with our modern Heroes, Elliott, Rodney, &c. takes from the truth of the representation, and offers to the imagination a motley picture, for which nothing but the brightest effusions of genius could apologize. To the same cause we may attribute his character of the rulers of Holland.

'The thrifty rulers of Batavia's state,
Their High and Mightinesses, high elate,
In craft confiding, strive to puzzle fate.'

} l. 339

"To puzzle fate" is a *turgid* idea, expressed in very familiar language. This effort to reach the sublime so far exhausts Mr. Tasker, that he drops all at once to absolute burlesque, talks of "cent. per cent." "trinal triplicity," &c. and sets all the Mynheers a smoking round the shrine of their Gods.

'Their selfish thoughts to trade are downward bent,
Not all the Powers of Europe's Continent
With Dutchmen reason, like to—CENT per CENT.
Religionless,* they Orthodox remain,
Trinal Triplicity they still maintain,
And serve three Gods, of Interest, Trade and Gain.

} 350

* The States are Atheists in their very frame.—DAYDEN.

Amid the vapours of the stagnant wine,
While they bow down to Interest divine,
Clouds of Tobacco fumigate her Shine.

} 353

Poor Phœbus has likewise fallen a sacrifice to this want of taste. The Author has degraded him from a *charioteer* to a mere *carter*. The dignity of the God of Day is sufficiently preserved in the following line

'Till Phœbus downwards drives his flaming car,' l. 447.
This is very well, but whether the God and he had quarrelled towards the conclusion of the Poem, or whether the spirit of burlesque was too strong within him we know not, but certain it is, that he afterwards robs Apollo of his *car*, and presents him, in its stead, with a *team*; whether of oxen or horses does not appear.

'Yonder, lo! Phœbus downwards drives his *team*.' l. 760.

To the account of the *want* already mentioned, we place the bad compliment he pays to the whole party in opposition to Lord North. Though he seems to approve of their measures, though he has praised them individually, yet he tells them, that before the year 1782, they were a parcel of *sleepy-headed senators*; then, indeed, they ceased to be so, for

——— 'Sol mounted in the vernal signs'——— l. 121.

'And wak'd each *sleepy, senatorial* head.' l. 126.

The *implied* attack made upon the untainted courage of the British sailors and soldiers, springs from the same source. To say that Rodney and Elliott were the *only* persons unmoved in the fleet and army under their command, does somewhat more than imply that the men they commanded did not meet danger with equal steadiness. Yet, we dare say, he did not mean this: what then did he mean when he wrote these two lines?

'Alone unmov'd see gallant Rodney stand.' l. 398.

'Alone unmov'd see thy brave Elliot stand.' l. 688.

In a composition so essentially faulty, it is hardly worth while to remark, that the *versification* is heavy and cumberous. The Writer too seems to labour under such a penury of rhyme that the ear is perfectly tired with the frequent repetition of the same sounds. A striking instance of this we meet with in p. 26. There are nineteen lines in the page, of which six end in *ire*, and seven in *ight*.

Such is the execution of a work that pretends to convey to posterity, the political and military transactions of "the eventful year 1782." A ray of poetry, however, *does* sometimes break through the gloom, and pleases us with unexpected brilliancy. Of this kind, the description of death on the memorable 12th of April, may be produced as an example. The idea is poetical, and, at the same time, well expressed.

Grim Death in triumph, o'er the war presides,
Towering from deck to deck with horrid strides,
(Round his impassive shape while cannons roar)
Mid falling masts, and mangled limbs, and gore;
Arm'd with his dart, in terrible delight
Smiles ghastly o'er the bloody front of fight
In act to strike—while each bold British heart
Beats high, and bounds against his blunted dart.

435

440
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Art. 30. *Albion Triumphant: or, Admiral Rodney's Victory over the French Fleet. A Poem.* By J. N. Puddicombe, M. A. 4to. 1s. 6. Printed for the Author and sold by Robson.

Mr. Puddicombe's performance bears a strong resemblance to a school exercise, teeming with classical allusions, and common-place ideas. We can pardon a young man thus pouring all his learning upon us *per fas nefasque*, but we cannot so easily forgive such an exuberance of mythology and ancient lore in "*Albion Triumphant.*" so much is said of "intrepid Grecians, Dardanian powers, Olympian feats, Paris' blind flame, Helen's fatal charms, stern Pelides, Mele's groves, grim Mars, stern Neptune, quivering Nereids, silver breasted Theseis, &c. &c." that we wonder how Rodney, Hood, and the British tars got into such company, and regret that nature and truth should be violated by such poetical patch-work.

The same want of judgment has led Mr. Puddicombe to praise his hero in such a manner, that the eulogy becomes almost ironical by its excess. We mean not to detract from the merits of the gallant admiral, whose victories have been highly advantageous to his country, but, can any Reader who is acquainted with the Roman history subscribe to the truth of the following line,

"And ev'n great Cæsar's yields to Rodney's name!"

Compared as warriors, the view in which they are exhibited by Mr. Puddicombe, what are the victories of Rodney, either in their magnitude or consequences, to the 1000 towns stormed by the Roman, the fifty pitched battles which he fought, and the 1,192,000 men which fell in these engagements?

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

LITERARY CURIOSITIES FROM PARIS.

SIR,

YOUR Academical News from Petersburg, in last Month's Review, which presented the agreeable prospect of the rising state of science in a country that has not long emerged from barbarism, has induced me to send you a striking contrast from a kingdom which has long been considered, at least by itself, as at the head of the polite and literary world. At a time when Russia is making rapid advances in learning and civilization, when prejudices of every kind are giving place to the dictates of good sense, should we have expected to meet with all the pedantry and absurdity of monkish ignorance in *the medical faculty of Paris*? In their address on the birth of a Dauphin, who would have looked for quotations from St. Austin? Is it conceivable that, in the same address, they should have told the king he was suspected of *impotency*, that they should, by implication, have informed his majesty they were of the same opinion, by attributing the birth of the Dauphin and his sister

sister to *miraculous interposition*, and not to *natural causes*? Or, could we have imagined that the whole of the composition would have been so supremely ridiculous as it is? But let the address speak for itself,—all that I can say must but feebly paint its singular merits.

“Address of the faculty of medicine at Paris, on the birth of the most serene Dauphin.

“Lewis XVth had ascended the throne—a happy husband; his conjugal affection equal to the reciprocal love which he deserved—but he had no child. And, while his merits claimed the tender appellation of Father of his Country from the united voice of his subjects, yet he had himself, no one that could properly salute him by the name of *Father*! France stormed Heaven with ardent vows, and anxious prayers, “supplications ascend, and miracles descend,” saith St. Austin. The first *miracle* that descended was a girl, at whose birth, so eagerly, and so long expected, it was the more fitting to shew the most * extravagant expression of joy, as the *slowness of nature*, attacked by *calumny*, had spread a certain diffidence over the minds of the people. It was love that produced, and excused their anxiety, which is the constant companion of high expectations. From this female increase we drew a happy presage, and indulged in sweeter hopes—“supplications again ascend, “and *miracles descend*”—† “the lillies *spin not*”—A DAUPHIN! is shewn to the world! Hail!—noble scion of the lillies! Live long! live happy! and in safety! May gentle quiet breathe upon thy repose, and graceful laughter and amiable disport await thy waking hours! Now, let thy adorable mother be noticed by thy smiles; now, with thy soft hand gently press her ivory bosom, and now impress chaste kisses with thy rosy lips—These, these will be fountains of caresses and of pleasure to her maternal breast. And when thou shalt have grown up, learn from *our* love to love thy Father, and from our awe to respect thy king. We add a wish sacred to the country, that thou mayest be no less loving than worthy of love, that as soon as thou perceivest thou art beloved, thou mayest know to return that affection. Thou art born for the throne, but may the ponderous load of the sceptre and crown be long unknown to thee. Drink deep of the arts of governing, and especially of loving thy people, bathing in the fountain head from whence thou art sprung. While the various orders of citizens with gra-

* The original word is “*gestire*,” to skip for joy.

† By this text of scripture, they mean that France is not to be governed by a female.

salutary worship strew thy cradle with flowers, let not the laurel dropping with blood offend thy tender eyes. May the peaceful olive be pleasing to thee as a soft pillow—we adore thee, its precursor,—as a deity.

“ Since the birth of our most serene Dauphin brings many advantages to the whole empire, and since it promises many more, it would be a crime not to return thanks to the only inexhaustible fountain of all good. It therefore behoveth us, exulting with hymns and songs of joy, more particularly to repeat those solemn prayers which we, with the other members of our university, have already poured forth to Almighty God, that *eternal* thanks may be returned with *incessant* voice, to the supreme being for this most happy event. For this purpose, the medical faculty of Paris decree that the eucharistical hymn *Te Deum*, shall be sung in the chapel of their school, on Saturday 10th November 1781, at ten o'clock in the morning.

“ Given at Paris, Monday 5th of the same month and year.

“ JOSEPH DEAN.”

Such is the Parisian address; which I abandon without a commentary to the reflexions of the Reader. In justice however to the *Fish-women* of Paris, (*les dames de la Halle*,) and to shew that good sense has not totally quitted the capital of France, I shall next give you *their* address to the new-born Dauphin. To meet with *propriety* when it is not looked for, is at least as pleasing as to be astonished with unexpected absurdity.

“ Address of the Fish-women of Paris to Monseigneur the Dauphin.

“ Monseigneur,

“ We have long expected you—Our hearts were yours even before your birth. You cannot as yet listen to, or understand the prayers that we pour forth around your cradle: they will one day be explained to you. They may all be summed up in this one wish, That we may behold in you the faithful representative of those to whom you owe your existence.”

G.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

PHILOSOPHICAL NEWS.

I HEAR from Paris that there is on foot a scheme for performing distillation *in vacuo*, which spares fuel and avoids disagreeable vapours, smells, &c. last year I heard there the same proposal, and that an ingenious

nious artist, named Meguic, had adapted a proper apparatus, like that of an air-pump, to large flat recipients: if the savings can pay the expence of the apparatus, the operation must be very much shortened, as eight degrees of Reaumur's thermometer, above the common temperature of the atmosphere, will be sufficient for it. This was the same Meguic who executed a dividing machine for mathematical instruments, which seemed to exceed in simplicity, those we have now in London, though originally made at York by a most famous mechanic named Henly, but afterwards constructed in London, and rewarded (one of them) as a new invention. This of Monsieur Meguic, I looked upon to be a new and happy thought: but I found lately, it was already practised long before, by one of our best wheel-cutters in London, named Thomas Chautler: and this proves the old saying, *that ignorance makes great men*. If we knew all that had been done before us in any matter, we should not boast so much of the originality of our inventions.

Dr. Rosa, Professor at Modena, has published some Memoirs, in which he pretends, that the pulsation of the arteries is not produced by the force of the heart, nor by the current of the blood: but by an *animal expansible vapour*, which is exhaled from the blood itself. Dr. Wilson had already expressed the same idea, if I remember right. But the experiments on which Dr. Rosa grounds his opinion, have been repeated at Milan partly with success, but some others afforded quite contrary results: most of them succeed as well with water as with blood, and of course, prove nothing else but that *in vacuo* there arises an elastic vapour, whose influence in producing the pulsation of the arteries, requires a more direct proof than these experiments really afford.

Dr. Scopoli, Professor of Chemistry at Pavia, has extracted from gypsum, a considerable quantity of phosphoric acid: he accounts, by its existence in that substance, for the phosphorescence observed in natural gypsums, and which does not appear in artificial gypsum, simply made with calcareous earth and vitriolic acid. If these experiments are to be relied upon, I have not the least doubt but we may easily account for the difficulty attending the making the artificial phosphorus of Homberg and Baldwin, which only consist of a combination of calcareous earth with nitrous acid in the last, and with the acid of ammoniacal salt, in the first: because unless the phosphoric acid pre-exists in the calcareous earth employed in making those two phosphori,

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the operation will not be successful. Philosophers are at great pains to explain the nature of the phosphorical light: and Mr. Macquer seems decided for a real, though feeble inflammation in all of them. But I wish this word were better defined, that we may understand one another. If the presence of phlogiston is required to form a phosphorical light, and this when excited, causes in fact, a true *inflammation*, or a *burning*, though in a very feeble degree; I wish to know, what inflammatory action can be supposed in a diamond, or any other gem, which furnishes such a light, when brought into the dark, after having been exposed to the sun's rays? I have even seen my own cloaths, the sleeve of my coat, my own fingers, &c. after having been exposed to the sun-shine through the window of a well darkened closet, shine, when withdrawn, very sensibly to my own eyes! Indeed, we make very long discourses, and long reasonings, merely upon words, because we are not careful enough to define them properly, and keep strictly to their definition. A kind of flame may, in fact, accompany some of the phosphorical apparatus: but we certainly misapply its meaning, when we say in a magisterial tone, that it is a real burning, or an inflammation, though in a feeble degree, &c. in all cases whatsoever.

Monsieur Leroy, of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, gave me lately, a singular piece of information about the respiration of *fixed* as well as *inflammable* air, without any detriment to the performer, who is a very reputable Philosopher at Paris, and whose name we have often seen at the head of ingenious disquisitions in natural philosophy. Monsieur Platts des Rosiers, the President, and perhaps the Founder, of a Philosophical Society at Paris, known by the name of *Musée* (but different from another of the same denomination, where the celebrated Count De Gibelin, well known to the literary world by his profound and learned researches in antiquities, chiefly those relative to antient languages and customs, &c. now presides). This gentleman, I say, had the courage to make use of either of those two kinds of air, for respiring therein as long as desired, without feeling any inconveniency; and, to obviate any doubt of the quality of the expired air, he fills therewith a jar inverted in water, on which a lighted candle is immediately extinguished, if it was the fixed air he tried: or else, by putting a tube into his mouth, to which he applies a lighted candle and the expired air rushing through it takes fire: and either forms a torrent of light, or inflames a paper which is put in its way. Monsieur Le Roy speaks not by hearsay, but attests the fact as an eye witness, who had been present at the exhibition of this

this phenomenon : and adds, that the same gentleman has offered to stay one or more hours, immersed in an atmosphere of fixed air, such as can be easily had at any brewery, which very probably he has already done, so as to know from actual experiment that it does not injure him. I cannot say whether any other person besides Mons. Pilatre will be able to perform such experiments upon himself (perhaps his lungs are stronger than common) or if by frequent trials any other may come in time to endure such air. But this I remember, that some few years ago an Italian Philosopher, who by his great abilities and extraordinary thirst after knowledge has been much admired and generally esteemed in this country*, had the same notion, viz. that *inflammable air* could be breathed without any harm : but as soon as he attempted a long trial, he was obliged to desist, by the consequent pains he felt in his breast. M.

From another correspondent we learn, that a French gentleman belonging to the *Ecole Veterinaire* of the French King, and now in London, has communicated to our anatomists a very extraordinary fact, viz. that the stomach instead of being contracted during the action of vomiting, is dilated to its utmost extent. The experiment has been repeated here upon a dog, and the observation found exactly true. It appears that at the instant the matter is ejected from the stomach, this viscus is expanded as it were by the extrication of a quantity of elastic fluid : it then collapses without the least appearance of muscular contraction during any part of the operation. Here is a fine field open for our physiologists ; for, if the same phenomena take place in other animals, vomiting cannot depend on the action, either of the gastric or abdominal muscles, as it has been hitherto very generally, and very naturally supposed to do.

We are happy to have it in our power to inform our Readers that an English Translation of Spallanzani's *Dissertazioni di Fisica*, &c. will soon be published. This is the work which contains those experiments on *Digestion* and *Generation*, of which report has told us so much, and of which the celebrated naturalist, Mr. Bonnet, has pronounced, that they are the most curious and extraordinary that have ever been performed by man *since the creation*.

* Mr. J. Fabroni, employed in the cabinet of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, though not in the capacity he highly deserves by his superior qualifications.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

T H E A T R E.

WE shall now proceed to take a sketch of the merits of the principal comic performers of Drury-lane, and we are sorry that our plan does not admit of a more copious examination; were we to do this subject justice, we must write a history and not an essay. For the sake of brevity likewise, we must confine our remarks to those actors, whose talents are confessedly above mediocrity, and whose professional characters are established.

We have already enumerated seven men, all of whom play nearly as often in comedy as in tragedy, and some oftener; when to these we have added Mr. King, Mr. Parsons, Mr. Dodd, Mr. Moody, and Mr. Baddely, we shall find the list of comic performers at this Theatre, still very respectable, though not equal to what it has been, when Garrick, Weston, Vernon, Yates, and other great names were written on the same conspicuous scroll.

Mr. King is universally allowed to be the first comic actor on the stage. His requisites natural and acquired are many and great. His figure is of that happy kind, that by the variations of dress, becomes the gentleman or the valet, the coxcomb or the misanthrope, with almost equal facility and truth. His eyes are remarkably animated lively and expressive, and his countenance is capable of that strong variety of muscular motion, for which the Italians are so celebrated. He does not however like them, apply this to the purposes of grimace, but to embody forth those workings of the mind, those forcible emotions which give such infinite pleasure to the spectator, when judiciously displayed. His articulation is the most perfect of any performer we have ever heard, Garrick alone excepted. His walk, action, manner, and whole deportment, are so variously proper, that we forget Mr. King, and see and think only of the character. Nothing more evidently discovers the accuracy of his judgement, than the care with which he has avoided the errors of the school in which he was formed: we mean that of pantomime description, that discoursing by action, and endeavouring to tell the meaning of the sentence before it is pronounced, which was once so predominant. This, it is true, may sometimes be proper; nay, may become a very great beauty: but it can only be in those characters that are foreigners, and are supposed to want the words, or the idiom of language, and, therefore, attempt to explain themselves by gesture. And by the way, there are few actors who play this last mentioned cast of parts, that are sufficiently attentive to gesture, which marks the reality of the Frenchman, or other foreigner, in a manner far superior to filling the nostrils with snuff, or shrugging the shoulders. Mr. King was at one time the young actor, that started up to rival and supply the place of Woodward, who had left Drury-lane, and returned to his old quarters. That he did not imitate him, but depended upon his own taste and feelings is his praise. We do not mean to say that he did not observe and profit by the excellencies of Woodward; this was his duty: but he did not become a mannerist; he studied his Author, and how persons

persons in real life, under such and such circumstances, would really behave. King as well as Woodward, once used to play Harlequin, and indeed Harlequin in those times was a very different being to what he is since become; but Woodward was Harlequin in every thing; King only when he ought to be. Woodward, who after Rich, was the best teller of a story in dumb shew the English stage perhaps has ever seen, was so conscious of this, that he never could forget it: if he mentioned an undertaker he flapped his hat, pursed up his brow, clasped his hands, and with a burlesque solemnity stalked across the stage before he spoke; he would mimic the wiping of a glass, or the drawing of a cork at the word waiter, and could not say mercer, till he had first measured off several yards of cloath on the flap of his coat. But he did these things with such strength of imitation and humour, that though it was flagrantly wrong, criticism itself could not forbear to laugh. Garrick himself, in his younger days, was much addicted to this fault. The younger Cibber, though he wrote with an express intention to depreciate, gave, notwithstanding, a lively picture of Garrick's errors; which the latter so far corrected, as his judgment improved, that but few traces of them at last remained, when he was on the stage: though so strong was the habit he had contracted, that when the respect due to an audience did not make him cautious, to the last he was prone to buffoon gesticulations in private conversation; which occasioned it to be said, "Garrick was an actor every where but on the stage." Cibber, in his dissertations, says of him—"Though I have as quick a perception of the merits of this actor as his greatest admirers, and have not less pleasure from his performance, when he condescends to pursue simple nature; yet I am not therefore to be blind to his studied tricks, his over fondness for extravagant attitudes, frequent affected starts, convulsive twitchings, jerkings of the body, sprawling of the fingers, flapping the breast and pockets, his pantomimical manner of acting every word in a sentence, with a set of mechanical motions in constant use, the caricatures of gesture."

If we may be allowed a conjecture concerning things before our time, it shall be that the pantomimical excellence of Rich, gave rise to these extravagancies. Garrick was undoubtedly a most diligent student of his art, and attended with a severe assiduity, both to the beauties and defects of his youthful cotemporaries. Rich was then in his meridian, and a wonderful mimic: that Garrick, before his taste was mature, should suppose the expressive dumb shew of Rich, might be introduced with effect in stage dialogue is not surprising. Woodward, who had not Garrick's powers of pleasing, without these adventitious trappings of false ornaments, was unwilling to forego any means of obtaining applause; though his judgment might condemn his practice, as we have reason to suppose it did; for he was a man of strong sense, and did not want monitors. King, though not Woodward's equal as a Harlequin, was his superior as an actor, for he obtained as much applause in a more correct and masterly stile. He has likewise proved himself capable of more variety. Woodward was confined to fops, valets, or characters out of, or, rather, beyond, nature: in these latter perhaps he never had his peer;

peers; but King has gone a greater round. The snip snap, wit, the sprightly rake, the gay gentleman, the choleric and surly father, the worn out debauchee, the canting hypocrite, the arch valet, and the impudent coxcomb, with many more, have successively delighted the town, when personated by Mr. King. We need but mention Witwou'd, Ranger, Sir Anthony Absolute, &c. &c. &c. to recall a train of pleasing ideas; into the minds of all who have been accustomed to theatrical exhibition.

It is in new plays that men of genius have mostly been discovered on the stage. Auditors are so far from being capable of making a cool and dispassionate comparison between a young and an old performer, that they constantly go, and especially to comedy, not with a picture in their minds how a character *should* be represented, but how he whom they have before seen and supposed great, looked and behaved. This is carried by the ignorant part of an audience to such excess, that an actor who came out in the part of Mungo at Covent Garden, was censured because the garter which hung down as a token of drunkenness, was on the wrong leg: that is, it was on the contrary leg to what this minute critic had seen Mr. Dibdin wear it, consequently wrong. Original characters then must in general, establish the fame of players. It was his performance of Lord Ogleby, which convinced every body, that Mr. King was an actor of great genius. Mr. Garrick and Mr. Coleman were sensible of his merit before, or they would not have entrusted their play in his hands, for on the performance of Lord Ogleby, the fate of the *Clandestine Marriage* depended, for which reason Mr. Garrick, who wrote the character, intended to have played it himself, but being taken ill while it was in rehearsal, it was given to Mr. King, and though Mr. Garrick recovered soon enough to have resumed his part, he was so struck when he beheld Mr. King's conception and execution of it at rehearsal, that he owned he did not think he could perform it in so masterly a manner. The debility, the vanity, and the philanthropy of Lord Ogleby, his half smothered contempt for, and well bred condescension to the family of Sterling, with his polite sneers at the contracted ideas of the citizen; the progress of his passion for his *adorable Fanny*; his self applause, ostentation, and joy, till his mistake is discovered, and the well bred ease without indifference, with which he reconciles himself, and all the interested parties to a cheerful good humoured resignation, are so happily and faithfully represented by Mr. King, that his performance of that character has ever been allowed a chef d'œuvre, by all judges of life, of manners, and the human heart. In witty dialogue Mr. King is likewise without a rival, at least among the men performers; Mrs. Abington alone can vie with him, and the pointed delivery of repartee is, in both, one of their chief excellencies. There is another species of character in which he is always beheld with infinite pleasure. The benevolent misanthrope, when personated by him, is a most respectable, though apparently contradictory being; and his performance stamps him with such reality, that even those whose sphere of life have never brought them acquainted with such people, for they seldom exist

exist but among the higher and refined ranks of society, yet they are convinced, he is no fictitious, but a *true man*.

The public have given and continue to give such repeated testimonies of the estimation in which they hold Mr. King's abilities; that we are certain of their approbation had we room to extend our enquiry through the various characters in which he has so frequently given them delight; but we are obliged to compress what we wish to extend. We shall only observe, that Mr. King is one of those few, whose great merit continues to support the English stage from sinking into a state of mediocrity, or what is worse, of false taste and buffoonery.

Of all the actors within our memory, there is not one in a certain line of playing can equal Mr. Parsons. His personification of an old feeble man is so natural, that it is imitable; and we are sorry, for the honour of the stage and the taste of the nation, that truth obliges us to accuse him of a vice, against which we have just declaimed. His habitual promptitude to buffoonery half obliterates the merit, that, in some kind of characters, would make him, perhaps, superior to any actor that ever existed. Actors who have no other powers but those of distortion and grimace to attract notice, are to be pitied, (if not defended,) while they endeavour to obtain applause, because it is the means of their subsistence: but for him whose imagination is rich, whose form and features contain that inherent humour that they only need be put in motion to excite laughter, for him to have recourse to grimace in order to extort what every body is willing to give, is a weakness that the critic cannot help lamenting, though he despairs to reform. Mr. Parsons is so excellently right in many things, and gives such exquisite pleasure, that it is impossible for an audience, or rather that part of an audience that is sensible of his deviations from propriety to notice them at the moment: their hearts are so merry, and his acting is such a continued provocation to laughter, that they have not then the power to be out of humour. On recollection, however, his occasional extravagancies return with a degree of pain upon the mind, and it grieves us to find that among innumerable touches of original and happy pleasantry, there was an alloy of coarseness and exaggeration. And yet there are parts and situations, in which what in other cases were defects, become beauties. Drunkenness so totally deprives a man of that attention, which sober reason pays to manners and contingencies, that extravagance is one of its attributes: of this Mr. Parsons is an instance. There is not so perfect, so natural an imitator of inebriety on the stage as this comedian, nor was there ever perhaps finer acting beheld, tragic or comic, than his drunken scene of Davy in *Bon Ton*. His dress, his look, his walk, his behaviour, are all drunk. He does not reel about from one place to another, till he is half overset, and till it becomes a difficulty for sobriety itself to recover the equilibrium, his whole attention is seemingly employed to save appearances, and to make the person he talks with believe him sober. He props his eyes open as it were by main force, and every muscle of his face is convulsed, by his attempts to keep a serene countenance. His hand is lifted towards his mouth to prevent his involuntary hiccups, but drops for want of

of power to reach half way, or if he effects his purpose, it is after various efforts. His eyes glare, his chin hangs, his knees bend and totter, and though he almost stands still, you expect every moment he will fall. He is so whimsically, so laughably, so positively drunk, that in the soliloquy of the part we have just cited, the house never fails to be kept on a roar for several minutes after Sir John Trotley goes off, before he can speak a word. The contortions of his visage are, here, what give the greatest pleasure; for, though he makes a thousand indescribably ridiculous caricatures, they are all evident endeavours to look wise and sedate. The same effects constantly produced, and after a piece is become stale by repetition, are irrefragable proofs of the talents of the actor. His performance of Mr. Doiley in *Who's the Dupe*; and of Diggory in *All the World's a Stage*; and in many others of the like nature, are also inexpressibly humorous, without (or at least with very allowable) improprieties. Broad farce admits a strength of colouring that chaster comedy disdains.

In Riccoboni's account of the Theatres of Europe, there is an anecdote of a young man of six and twenty, who played and looked the part of Old Gasard in the *Anatomist* so well, that Mademoiselle Salle, who was then in England, was so entirely convinced of his being a feeble very old man, she durst not go into the passage where he was, for fear that by brushing against him she should throw him down. Riccoboni too, who saw him, expresses his wonder at the extraordinary talents of this youthful old actor. This anecdote cannot fail to remind those who read it of Mr. Parsons, for all who have only seen him on the stage, suppose him to be really an old man, but here they are deceived, he is yet in that part of life called middle age, and was not, when he first played the dying old man in *Wit's Last Stake*, older than the person Riccoboni speaks of with such wonder. He first came to Drury-lane in 1762, and the farce we have mentioned, which is a spirited translation by Mr. King, of the latter part of *Le Legataire Universel*, came out in 1763. Those who can remember him in that piece, will say, they never beheld a more perfect picture of debilitated worn out age; but no person by seeing Mr. Parsons in the Theatre, can remember him a young man, he has always been supposed old by the town.

Mr. Parsons seems distinct from most performers, by the humorous playfulness of his fancy, and which, indeed, he sometimes indulges too licentiously, though it is generally replete with whim, and abundantly productive of laughter. The late Mr. Shuter had the same faculty and the same foible, and in the faulty part carried it to still greater excess. He would speak to the audience, call the actors by their real names, apply personal jokes and allusions to himself or them, and take any liberty that accident or caprice might suggest. The galleries would laugh and applaud, and his vanity was gratified. It is to be regretted that he, and others in like situations, cannot perceive "this is a pitiful ambition," unworthy of a good actor, or a man of genius, because contrary to propriety, highly disrespectful to an audience, and destructive of that reality, which, by player as well as poet, should ever be most strictly adhered to and industriously preserved. Did an actor con-

sider, that it is that class of auditors only, whose praise is no recommendation, who are pleased by such deviations from character; that he obscures his real excellencies, and makes the judicious half forget they have been pleased, while they remember how much they have been offended; and that he gives just occasion to the invidious to attack and wound his reputation and depreciate his abilities, he would surely forbear the practice. It is likewise a duty the public owe themselves, and a tribute due to the national taste and reputation, that the spectators should by some gentle marks of disapprobation, convince the offender of his mistake, and the impropriety of such freedoms. To hiss, would, in general, be not only too severe, but ineffectual: it would bring down a thunder of applause from the galleries, who are always laudably active in support of their favourites, and the actor might suppose it the hiss of an enemy instead of a critic. The word *he* from half a dozen persons in the pite and boxes on such occasions, would be more likely to convince, without insulting the performer, and might produce the necessary reformation.

Let not these observations and this advice be misconstrued. We do not under the idea of being chaste, wish to encourage a dry fastidious unmeaning correctness: a bold luxuriance is preferable. But why should not an actor be as perfect as possible? There are certain limits beyond which he should not step: it is unworthy of genius to obtain applause by being extravagant, and good acting is as great, though a more evanescent effort of genius, as any art or science can produce. We have been told of a farce at Amsterdam, in which a miller appears greatly distressed for want of wind to turn his mill. While he is in this dilemma, a compassionate Dutchman enters, and understanding the cause of his grief, turns his posteriors to the mill sails, and by certain backward erructations, the sound of which is very naturally imitated behind the scenes, he sets the mill a going. The mob are highly delighted at a joke so much within their own comprehension, and the people of better taste are exceedingly ashamed and chagrined. Though this is not only extravagant, but indelicate and disgraceful, it has been equalled in our time on a London Theatre. A certain mimic famous for his performance of *Pierrot* in Pantomimes, contrived to place a pair of hard blown bladders, so as they might burst by a sudden fall on his breech. The first experiment he made was not successful, for the elasticity of the confined air canted him up and pitched him upon his nose; but being used to blows and rebuffs in his performance, he was not discouraged, and ventured a second trial, in which he burst the bladders, seized his posteriors, and so great was the explosion, it astonished the house, who did not understand the joke, otherwise it is hoped they would severely have chastised the inventor.

These anecdotes are related to convince those who interest themselves in such affairs, that it is the public who must make the actor attentive to propriety, for while they applaud indiscriminately, the performer will scarcely know where to stop.

Mr. Dodd is a most valuable comic actor in a certain line. Wherever the passion of vanity is predominant in a character it is usually sustained with great propriety, truth, and force of colouring.

if personated by him. He has studied, with a laudable degree of attention, every species of the coxcomb and petit maitre: their peculiarities, actions, attitudes, affected inattention, and vacant nonchalance of countenance, are so familiar to his imagination, that they seem to have become naturalized, and so much a part of himself, that they are scarcely shook off with the same ease that they are put on. But actors, even after they have acquired reputation, are held in more or less esteem by the town, in proportion as they have many or few characters written for them, that is in proportion to the opportunities they have of being seen to advantage. The death of the late inimitable Mr. Weston, and a scarcity of original parts, have incited Mr. Dodd to try his abilities in what is called low comedy: but though he has frequently obtained as much applause in this stile of playing as in the other, it is by no means with equal justice. The manners of fops he has copied from life, but does not discover the same accuracy when he would exhibit the stupidity, the blunders, the fears, or the blunt jokes of a clown. In the one he presents a charming and finished picture, in the other at best but a caricature, in which tricks and grimace are substituted for simplicity and genuine humour. There is however an exception to this censure, which it would be an assassination of merit not to mention; his Sir Andrew Aguecheek in *Twelfth Night* is so capital and masterly a performance, that it deserves the highest encomiums. Not even Palmer in *Sir Toby Belch*, all excellent as he is, equals Dodd in this play. There is another character in which he has great and peculiar merit. Kecksey in the farce of the Irish widow, though feebly written, is made by his acting, original, humorous and natural. His performance likewise of the Nephew in Shirley's comedy of the Gamester is eminently deserving of praise.

We come now to speak of an actor to whom the public are highly indebted for having reformed the Theatre of a very gross abuse. Mr. Moody is the person who first convinced the town an Irishman might be a gentleman on the stage as well as off. Players are too frequently hereditary imitators of each other. Colley Cibber makes it one of his merits that he had observed Dogget with such attention, that the most minute article of dress, even to the placing of a hair, had not escaped him, but when called upon to play one of Dogget's characters on an emergency, the surprize of the audience was excessive, to find he had not only borrowed his cloaths but his voice. This is a false ambition. Real persons and not their representatives should be copied. The Irishman in the comedy of the Committee is a low illiterate fellow, though a faithful adherent. The same Anthony Leigh acquired in personating this character, gave his immediate imitators and their successors an idea that every Irishman was to be represented on the stage as little better than a blundering blackguard. Mr. Moody had more discernment, he saw Irishmen, like other men, had various manners and characters which they derived from education, rank, fortune, and other accidents. He studied the originals and succeeded; the town applauded the attempt, and he is deservedly held to be the best representative of the Irish character the stage has ever possessed. To possess equal excellence in every species of imitation is not to be expected. Mr.

Moody plays the hearty old man in comedy, but not with the same superiority. He seems to imagine that in order to be natural, it is rather necessary to speak loud, nor use much action. This distinction however right in some instances, is exceedingly wrong in others; it may degenerate into affectation, while it attempts simplicity. Sir Sampson Legend is no whisperer. His manners, oaths, and language, are certain indications of a boisterous and vociferous habit. He vaunts to Angelica that he is of a long lived race, who inherit vigour, and to Foresight, that he has rode a hunting upon an elephant and made a cuckold of a king. He would not speak this in the ear; he is vain of his strength, and proclaims his good qualities.—"Odd Sampson's a very good name for an able fellow; your Sampsons were strong dogs from the beginning." And again—"thou shalt make me a father, and I'll make thee a mother, and wilt beget sons and daughters enow to put the weekly bills out of countenance." Such is his language, and it seems strange that an actor of good talents can mistake what his behaviour should be.

Mr. Baddely is a good low comedian, and eminent for his performance of French characters, especially the Swiss valet in which he is unrivalled. Our comic writers have been so careful to flatter the national prejudice, that they have never attempted to exhibit a Frenchman, except in a ridiculous or contemptible light. This may perhaps be good policy, but its illiberality and injustice are flagrant. The actors have fallen in with this predilection of the people and the writers, and have so caricatured and burlesqued the French, that such beings are in general nowhere to be found except within the walls of the Theatre. Mr. Baddely, though he frequently discovers a good knowledge of French manners, is obliged in general to comply with custom and the humour of the common people, who are never more delighted than when they see a Frenchman indeed ridiculous.

In peevish old men this actor has likewise considerable merit, and his performance of Moses in the School for Scandal, has justly enlarged his reputation.

There are many other men performers at Drury-lane, who deserve and obtain public encouragement, among whom is Mr. Suett, a young man who promises hereafter to stand forward as an actor. Let the following short remarks increase his caution. He has at present the fault of which we have so often had occasion to complain. He studies his art more from the stage than the world, and labours rather to be comical than natural. He has contracted some bad habits too; he is continually hemming and licking his lips. The habits of the actor destroy the identity of the character, and should be carefully avoided by all who have an ambition to excel.

(Continued from our last.)

THE greatest event that has distinguished this month, is the famous coalition, or formation of a new Ministry. Concerning the temper that gave birth to this treaty, we have already made some observations in our last number. It is evident that there is a power, for the present moment, at least, and in the present juncture, which controuls that of the constitution. The junction of Lord North and Mr. Fox, it is generally presumed, is not agreeable to that branch of the constitution in which the administration of government is vested, and we may safely affirm, that it is equally repugnant to the general wishes of the nation. Both these Ministers have lost much of their private influence. Of Lord North, it is said in print, as well as in the circles of private conversation, that he abandoned unsuspecting generosity, the moment the reward of his public services was made irrevocable, and joined that bold ambition that *seized on* the reins of government, in expectation of new spoils. Mr. Fox is compared to Cataline, or Cæsar, who on the wings of popularity, aims at rising to the supreme power in the state.

It is probable, that the opinions, that have been engendered or increased concerning the new Secretaries, by their coalition, will contribute to precipitate their fall. For this extraordinary conjunction will whet the public appetite for censure, will sharpen the jealous eye of opposition, magnify every omission, and give the very worst colour to every error in their administration. It would seem to be wisdom, on their parts, to conciliate the public esteem by the public spirit, the vigilance, and the vigour of their government. But what measures are entitled to the praise of public spirit, is, in this country, very difficult to determine. The Secretaries themselves are divided in their opinions upon some of the greatest subjects that are expected to come before Parliament. It is not, therefore, by the unanimity of their counsels, by a steady pursuit of what they are firmly convinced is for the good of the nation, and, of course, by a bold appeal to the people at large, for the wisdom and integrity of their conduct, that they can hope to prolong their power. They must do by policy, what they cannot effect by virtue. They must govern by influence and corruption. They must manage faction, soothe discontent, and by making mutual concessions and alliances with the friends and connections of each, endeavour to confirm in their own hands, such a supreme aristocratical power, as governed this nation in the last reign, under the administration of the Duke of Newcastle.

The easy joculariry of Lord North, and the unabashed confidence of Mr. Fox, after so many inconsistencies, in the House of Commons, shews how much they confide in the power of combination, and how little they respect the virtue of the nation. There is, however, in the very nature of the

the confederacy between these men, a principle of dissolution. As they are, each of them, almost *professedly* governed by *interest* or *ambition*, they will maintain their connection no longer than the one shall see a fit opportunity of supplanting the other; or, until that revolution and change, which are so incident to the British government, shall wrest from their hands the helm of government, and make it their interest to range under other standards.

The loan, as usual, has furnished matter of dispute in Parliament. In this all parties are agreed, that never was such a supply necessary at the conclusion of a peace. The national debt is now indeed immense. And either new taxes must be raised, or savings made to the amount of above three millions per annum; or, there must be a reduction of the interest of the public funds. How great the political wisdom that is equal to the task of conducting the affairs of England in such circumstances as these? To impose such taxes as shall not check industry or diminish population! To make such public savings, as shall not be inconsistent with that dignity, which it is not only the honour, but the *interest* of the monarchy to maintain in the eyes of foreign states! and all this, in the present depressed and embarrassing situation of public affairs, is indeed a very difficult matter, and seems to require greater wisdom, virtue, and unanimity in our councils than there is reason to expect. The Northern Powers seem to be somewhat alarmed, at the very great forwardness of Britain to grant commercial advantages to her *quondam* colonies. All the time that can possibly be spared from the necessary business of managing the House of Commons, supporting their own power, and going through the ordinary course of business, should certainly be devoted by Ministers, to form such a new code of trade laws as may best promote the commercial grandeur of England. To make new, advantageous, and liberal regulations in matters of commerce, is an inheritance left to them by Lord Shelburne.

That minister affirmed in the House of Peers, that the *peace* which he made, was only a part of a more extensive plan, to be completed in the course of time. The voice of the people is more with that treaty than it was at first. Should the *peace* become more and more popular, men will recollect the promises of Lord Shelburne; they will be apt to believe he would have fulfilled them, and make comparisons between him and his successors. Let his successors therefore consider well all the parts of his plan, *Eas est ab hoste doceri*. Perhaps, they might derive some useful hints from the ideas thrown out both in writing, and in private societies, as well as public assemblies, by Lord Shelburne and his most intimate friends. It was one of the chief arguments of the late minister for making any peace that might be obtained, that the great confederacy against Britain would thereby be broken in pieces, and an opportunity would be afforded to this kingdom of forming advantageous connections on the continent of Europe. But for such a purpose, it must be confessed, that *secret service* money would be necessary, and alas! all the money that can be raised from the subjects of Britain, finds vent at home. Our ministers are therefore as

chaste

chaste and pure in their conduct at foreign courts, as they are seducing and corrupt in their management of Parliament.

The nature of the British constitution scarcely admits of that secret influence, that constancy, and address which is necessary to operate with success on foreign councils. While France was free, the world did not complain of the influence of French gold and French policy. It was not till the reign of Lewis XIII. when the genius of Richelieu subjected the Barons to the power of the crown, that France began to preponderate in the scale of nations. But, if the matter be otherwise, the present President of his Majesty's Council, may be admonished to recollect his experience in the course of his different embassies; and the Chancellor of the Exchequer to call to mind his observation when Lord North's party complained in the House of Commons, that French gold had stirred up a party in Holland, in opposition to the interests of Britain. "And what," said Lord John Cavendish, "if a little English gold had been sent over, to counteract the operation of that of France? I doubt it is sometimes worse employed."

The resolution that seems to be taken by Ministry, of sending out Mr. Francis to India, shews that mild and pacific measures are to be followed in that part of the British dominions. This measure is remarkable on another account. It is among the first steps that proves the superiority of Mr. Fox's Squadron in the British Councils; for the friend and confidant of Lord North was Mr. Hastings.

Since the peace, we hear little of the pretensions of Scotland to a constitutional national defence. A pamphlet, however, now and then makes its appearance in defence of the right of the people to chuse their own ecclesiasticks.

The principle which mutilated the empire, and which found its way into all its remaining dependencies, still rages in the bosom of England, and appears in the Senate, in the Navy, and in the Army. The successful mutiny of the 90th regiment, commanded by General Tottenham at Wakefield, has in the course of this month, added a fresh proof to the truth of this position.

Of the effects, which the acknowledgment, on the part of England, of American independence on the minds of the Americans, we, as yet, know but very little. The evacuation of Charlestown, by the English, and the introduction of the Americans, were performed with moderation and decent composure, on both sides. This circumstance, however, as far as we can reason from a circumstance so trivial, seems to form a presage, that mutual affection will soon return between the two nations. The numerous mercantile adventures to America, we hope, will meet with success. But as to emigrants, the wants of the Americans being yet few, and their wealth small, they only can hope to succeed in that country, who are willing to submit to the laborious occupations of husbandmen and mechanics. The unsettled state, and the principles of internal discord, which are now sown in the Colonies, render them less inviting scenes to foreigners, than formerly. And, as to the Provinces

vinces themselves, although they have now obtained a name and rank among the nations, they will never again, in all probability, enjoy that internal tranquillity and happiness, which once excited the admiration of all who knew them.

ANSWERS to CORRESPONDENTS.

To the very judicious and candid Letter of Amicus Eboracensis, we are disposed to pay the utmost attention. We shall be careful to avoid "any censure or opinion, that bears the appearance of political partiality." Our Correspondent will allow that parties, and men of all parties, are censured in the Political Article, with a freedom, which is perfectly inconsistent with that illiberal artifice, which "courts a sale by catching the voice of the day," and which, we agree with our Friend, "is apt to be erroneous, because frequently given without due information of facts, and measures, or the reasons of them."

This Correspondent submits to our consideration, whether, in our Review of Politics, it would not be prudent to confine ourselves to "historical deduction." It is, indeed, only time that can illuminate the causes and the consequences of political affairs. But let it be observed, that THE ENGLISH REVIEW neither pretends to give the History of the present times, on the one hand, nor confines its views to unconnected facts, on the other. It aims at exhibiting a picture of the Political Speculations of the Month, and tracing some connections between the events that happen in that limited period, and others that have preceded, or are likely to follow them. For example, that spirit of mutiny which appears in the navy and army we view as a consequence of that relaxation of government, and that general spirit of revolt, which have mutilated the empire.

But, if the events of one Month shall contradict the speculations of another, we shall be careful to mark the incongruity, and shall be particularly happy, whenever we shall have occasion to acknowledge a mistake in any of our conjectures, concerning the misconduct and interested designs either of Ministers or their opponents.

To judicious hints, and liberal communications, the English Review shall always be open.

THE
ENGLISH REVIEW,

For MAY, 1783.

ART. I. *The History of the Reign of Philip the Third, King of Spain.*
By Robert Watson, L. L. D. Principal of the United College,
and Professor of Philosophy and Rhetoric, in the University of
St. Andrews, 4to. 11. 1s. boards. Robinson.

THIS volume of history, while it is valuable for the information it affords concerning Spain, derives a peculiar utility from the situation of the present times. There is no portion of modern story which bears so great an analogy to the state of Great Britain as that of Spain, in the period comprehended in the publication now before us. The points of allusion and comparison are curious and important. We observe the same passions arising from a similarity of circumstances; but we may also remark the different turns which distinguish great affairs from the different characters of statesmen and commanders; and though the difficulty of politics as a science is thus illustrated; yet there appears a sufficient foundation to form reasonings and conjectures from the past to the future, and from the examples and the lessons of history, to speculate concerning the fortunes of nations.

The revolted subjects of Spain in the Low Countries had maintained a struggle for independence with that haughty power for nearly forty years, and had obtained signal reputation and glory, when the death of Philip II. placed the reins of the Spanish government in the feeble hands of Philip III. This indolent, pious, and gentle prince reposed an implicit confidence in the Duke of Lerma; and the whole administration of affairs was directed by a nobleman, whose talents were circumscribed and unequal to the difficulties of his station.

In continuing his narration of the revolt of the United
ENG. REV. Vol. I. May 1783. B b Provinces,

Provinces, Dr. Watson discovers the same ability which he had exerted in his former historical attempts. He is clear in his arrangement, accurate in his investigations, and perspicuous in his style. On the one hand he examines the circumstances which enfeebled the mighty power of Spain; and on the other, he inquires into those peculiarities which gave vigour to the councils, and commanded the success of the United Provinces.

‘ALTHOUGH Philip II. ‘says he,’ through the vigilance and vigour of his administration, had left his dominions every where, except the Netherlands, in the enjoyment of internal tranquillity, he had not left them in a flourishing condition. On the contrary, Spain, his place of residence, and his seat of empire, was greatly exhausted, and some of the principal sources of her opulence and prosperity were dried up.

‘By the war in which he had made so many great exertions, both by sea and land, and, still more, perhaps, by the migrations of the people to the new world, the inhabitants of Spain were greatly reduced in number. All emoluments and honours which the sovereign could bestow, had, for ages past, been divided between the military and the ecclesiastical professions. By this means, the mechanic arts and agriculture, having come to be regarded as comparatively mean and despicable, were alike abandoned by the indolent or inactive, and by those who were endued with a spirit of ambition and enterprise. This contempt, and the consequent neglect of the more useful arts, the profits arising from which, though sure are always moderate, was heightened by the frequent instances of enormous fortunes, suddenly acquired by the adventurers in America. That proportion of the riches arising from the American mines, which the sovereign received, was spent either in those countries in which his wars were carried on, or in purchasing naval and military stores from other nations. The greater part of what was imported by merchants and other individuals was laid out in England, Italy, and the Netherlands, for manufactures, which the colonies required, but which Spain was become unable to supply; and the remainder was drained off by taxes which the king had, from time to time, been necessitated to impose. From this scarcity of money; from the want of manufactures; from the neglect of agriculture, joined to the numberless losses sustained at sea, where Philip had been almost always foiled by his enemies, trade of every kind was reduced to the lowest ebb; and so great was the consequent disorder in the finances, that, besides a debt of 140 millions of ducats which he left upon the crown, he had been obliged to have recourse to the disgraceful expedient of employing ecclesiastics to go from house to house, to receive from his subjects in Spain such assistance as they were willing to afford: a measure which was not attended with the advantages which he had expected to derive from it, while it contributed to sink his reputation in Spain, as his refusal to pay the interest of his foreign debt, before related, had already done in the rest of Europe.

‘THE danger to which the Spanish monarchy was exposed, from that debility to which it was reduced at the present period, was the more to be dreaded, because many parts of this widely extended empire were removed to so great a distance from the seat of government; and nothing, there was ground to believe, could avert the impending ruin, but a vigorous exertion of the highest abilities, joined to the most rigid and judicious œconomy. It was likewise obviously necessary that peace should instantly have been established with the maritime powers; who, having for several years past, held the sovereignty of the seas, seemed to possess sufficient naval force entirely to destroy the Spanish trade, and to cut off all communication between the mother country and her colonies.’

The first important event which he describes in the reign of Philip III. is the marriage of that prince. About the same time with the royal nuptials, those of the Archduke Albert were solemnized with the Infanta. After offering a few observations on the impolicy of Spain in not yielding on this occasion the free and full sovereignty of the Netherlands to the Archduke, the Author proceeds to relate the difficulties in which she was involved by this improvidence and neglect. He then in the sequel of the first book, and in the whole of the second, employs himself in recording the war in the Netherlands under Prince Maurice on the part of the Dutch, and the Marquis of Spinola on that of Spain. The greatest proofs of military skill and prowess were exhibited upon both sides; but the great number of sieges, and the extreme circumstantiality with which they are described by Dr. Watson, while they must fatigue the generality of Readers, are useless to military men, from his manifest ignorance of the art of war. Indeed we cannot but observe, in this place, that his wild affectation of military knowledge, and the simplicity of his political reflections are the chief blemishes of his work.

In his third book, we have an account of the incidents which led to, accompanied, and finally brought to a conclusion, the famous truce of twelve years between Holland and Spain. Of the independency of the Dutch which this truce recognized, the principal cause was that spirit of persisting industry which fostered the generous flame of liberty, by furnishing inexhaustible resources for carrying on the war. It is, therefore, with great propriety, that Dr. Watson has taken care to exhibit a full narration of the origin and progress of the Dutch manufactures and commerce.

‘It may justly appear surprising, ‘says he,’ that a state possessed of so small a territory as the republic of the United Provinces should have been able to support the expence of a war at home against so potent an enemy. Yet, during the continuance of

this war, their exertions were not confined to the Netherlands. They maintained at the same time a numerous fleet of ships of war, with which they generally proved victorious in all their naval encounters with the enemy, while they successfully attacked his dominions in the most distant quarters of the globe. They had been much indebted for their success in the Low Countries to the assistance in money and troops which they received from Henry IV. and Queen Elizabeth; but as the aid which these princes could afford them was never liberal, they must have sunk under the power of their enemies, but for those copious resources which they opened by the extension of their trade.

THE inhabitants of the Low Countries had for several centuries been distinguished by their industry, and their skill in manufactures. Even in the time of the Roman republic, they had given proofs of their superior ingenuity. When by the irruptions of those northern barbarians who overturned the Roman empire, all the useful arts of life, as well as letters and science, had been well nigh extinguished, they were first revived and successfully cultivated by the Flemings, and other inhabitants of the Netherlands. About the middle of the tenth century, free marts, or fairs, were established by Baldwin, earl of Flanders, to which great numbers of merchants from Germany, France, and other places resorted, to purchase the manufactures in which the Flemings so much excelled. The example of Baldwin was imitated by his successors for almost three centuries, during which period the industry and commerce of the Flemings were carried to the greatest height, and remained unrivalled by the other European nations. But the succeeding sovereigns, finding it necessary for defraying the expence of the wars in which they were often engaged with the neighbouring princes, to impose various taxes on commodities, great numbers of the manufacturers and merchants, unaccustomed to such impositions, withdrew into Holland, where they were at once free from taxes, and much less exposed to those calamities of war, which they had often experienced in the more open provinces of Flanders and Brabant.

THE art of salting herrings having, in the fourteenth century, been discovered by William Buerem, a native of Pierrem, in Flanders, the herring trade, which hath proved so copious a source of wealth and industry to the Netherlands, was first cultivated by the citizens of Sluys and Bruges; but it was soon afterwards communicated to the Dutch, who improved to the utmost the advantages which their situation afforded them for carrying it on with success. They were, at the same time, in possession of the cod and whale fishery; and, while they exported great quantities of fish, and of manufactures, they were every year extending their trade in the southern parts of Europe, in the countries which lie round the Baltic, and in those parts of Germany with which they communicated by the Rhine and other rivers which pass through their territory, before they fall into the sea.

BEFORE the middle of the sixteenth century the provinces of Holland and Zealand underwent an important change by the great

great increase of the number of inhabitants, occasioned by the persecution on account of religion in France and Germany. Charles the Fifth had resolved to extirpate the Protestants from his dominions in the Netherlands, as well as from those in Germany; but he had been in a great measure deterred from the prosecution of his design, partly by the partial affection which he bore towards his Dutch and Flemish subjects, and partly by his dread of the fatal consequences, with which the rigorous execution of his edicts might be attended, with regard to their manufactures and their trade.

BOTH the French and German Protestants therefore found an asylum in the Netherlands, and imported thither their families, their wealth, and their industry. Of the advantages resulting from thence Brabant and Flanders participated in common with the more northern maritime provinces, but the intolerant and oppressive spirit of the Spanish government prevented them from long enjoying these advantages. It was chiefly by the manufacturers and merchants that the opinions of the reformers were embraced; they were persecuted with the most unrelenting fury, and they likewise most severely felt the burthen of those oppressive taxes that were imposed. By the cruel treatment which they received several thousands of them were compelled to withdraw into other countries. Many went over to England, where Elizabeth was ready to afford them her protection. But when the maritime provinces had asserted their liberty, and Ghent, Bruges, and Antwerp, after an unsuccessful struggle, had again submitted to the Spanish yoke, by much the greater part of the Flemish emigrants retired into Holland or Zealand, and took up their residence in Middleburg, Haerlem, Leyden, and Amsterdam. In their new abode they enjoyed the free exercise of their religion, a privilege which they deemed a compensation for every hardship they might find it necessary to undergo. The country which they had made choice of being of small extent, could not afford sustenance for one third part of its inhabitants. But being situated in the heart of Europe, at the mouth of several navigable rivers, and most of the towns communicating with each other by these rivers or by canals, no country could be more commodious either for inland or foreign trade. While their situation therefore prompted them to apply themselves to commerce, by the conveniencies which it afforded for carrying it on, they at the same time found it necessary to engage in it, as the only means of their subsistence and support.

The subject of the Dutch commerce naturally led to their military operations against the Spaniards at sea. Of these we have a very particular account. The flourishing state of Holland, and the weak and declining condition of Spain, joined to the advanced age of the Archduke Albert, prepared the way for a truce. The overtures for peace were first thought of by Spain; but with such art was the mention of them managed, that they seemed to proceed entirely from the pacific disposition of the Archduke. The Dutch,

wary and cautious, penetrated into the views of Spain, remarked its weakness, and were stimulated to opposition. A party headed by Prince Maurice, represented all the proposals and concessions of Spain as insidious, and as intended to sow the seeds of discord among the provinces, and to roll them into a fatal repose. Here the Reader is presented with a curious picture of the impolitic haughtiness of Spain on the one side, and of the far stretched jealousy and suspicion of the Dutch on the other. The celebrated Barneveldt opposed Prince Maurice; and his eloquence, with the authority of France and England, prevailing upon the provinces, a truce with Spain was concluded at Antwerp in the year 1609.

By this pacification Spain retained ten out of seventeen provinces which had revolted from her yoke. The liberties, the lives, and the property of the loyalists were preserved against every possible violation; and they were treated with every indulgence which equity and moderation could require. Of thirty eight preliminary articles of peace, more than two thirds relate to the condition and interest of individuals: so attentive was the Spanish generosity to the merits and sufferings of men, who had exposed their lives and fortunes by maintaining their allegiance! and so sensible was Spain that allegiance and protection are reciprocal! But while we cannot but admire this example of the liberality of Spain, we are equally at a loss to suppress our indignation at the conduct of the English ministry in a similar situation. By the treatment of the American loyalists, a stab was given not only to the honour of England, but to its good sense, humanity, interest, and policy.

Dr. Watson in his fourth book delineates the history of the Moors in Spain; and it must be allowed that he has given an affecting account of their expulsion from that kingdom. Here too, a citizen of the world will peruse with feeling and interest the contrast exhibited by the Author, between the furious bigotry of the Romish superstition, and the generous humanity and greatness of the nobles of Spain.

'MANY of the Moreoscs were persons of substance and condition,' says the Author, 'some of them, on account of their early profession of Christianity, had been raised to the rank of nobility, by the emperor Charles V. And the elegance and beauty of the young Moreosco women is highly celebrated by a contemporary Spanish historian, whose bigotry often prompts him to exult in their distresses.'

'WIDELY different from the sentiments of this bigotted ecclesiastic were those of the Valentia barons; who gave their vassals, on this melancholy occasion, every proof of generous compassion and humanity. By the royal edict they were entitled to all the property belonging

belonging to their vassals, except what they were able to carry about their persons: but the barons, despising this right which the edict bestowed on them, allowed the Morescoes to dispose of whatever part of their effects could be sold for money, and likewise permitted them to convey their most valuable furniture and manufactures on mules and in carriages to the ships. Many of them accompanied their vassals in person to the shore, and some of them, having embarked along with them, saw them safely landed on the coast of Africa*.

BUT this kind attention of the barons served only for a little time to mitigate their distress. Their exile from their native country, which justly excited in them the most bitter regret, and gave them so much ground for anxiety with regard to their future fortune, was soon succeeded by still greater calamities. Great numbers were shipwrecked on their passage, and never reached the African coast; while many others were barbarously murdered at sea, by the crews of the ships which they had freighted; this latter calamity befel only those who had chosen to transport themselves in private ships, and instances are recorded of such inhuman cruelty exercised against this harmless, persecuted, and defenceless people, by the owners and crews of these ships, as equals any thing of the same kind of which we read in history. The men butchered in the presence of their wives and children; the women and children afterwards thrown alive into the sea; of the women, some, on account of their beauty, preserved alive for a few days to satiate the lust of the inhuman murderers of their husbands and brothers, and then either slaughtered or committed to the waves; such were some of the horrid deeds of which these barbarians were convicted upon their trial, to which they were brought, in consequence of quarrelling with each other about the division of their prey; and such, if we may credit a contemporary historian, was the unhappy fate of a great number of the Morescoes.

NOR was the fate of the greater part of those who reached the coast of Barbary less deplorable. They had no sooner landed on this barren inhospitable shore, than they were attacked by the Bedouin Arabs, a wild banditti who live in tents, and support themselves by hunting and by plunder. The Morescoes, unarmed, and incumbered with their wives and children, were often robbed by

* Of the barons who thus distinguished themselves by their tenderness and humanity on this occasion, and who remained at the sea-ports during the whole time of the embarkation, employing all their interest to protect the Morescoes from injury, and to procure them the best accommodation possible on board the ships, Fonseca has recorded the names of the following, adding that there were many others whom he has not named: the duke of Gandia, whose great estate was almost entirely ruined; the marquis of Albayda, the count of Alaguas, the count of Bunol, the count of Anna, the count of Sinarcas, the count of Concentayna, and the duke of Maqueda who went over in the first embarkation to the port of Oran.

these barbarians, who came upon them in numerous bodies, amounting sometimes to five or six thousand men; and, as often as the Morescoes attempted, with stones and slings, their only arms, to make resistance, put great numbers of them to the sword. Still greater numbers perished of fatigue and hunger, joined to the inclemencies of the weather, from which they had no means of shelter, during their tedious journey through the African deserts, to Mostagan, Algiers, and other places, where they hoped to be permitted to take up their residence. Few of them ever arrived at these places. Of six thousand, who set out together from Conastal, a town in the neighbourhood of Oran, with an intention of going to Algiers, a single person only, of the name of Pedralvi, survived the disasters to which they were exposed; and of the whole hundred and forty thousand, who were at this time transported to Africa, there is ground to believe, from the concurring testimony of persons who had access to know the truth, that more than a hundred thousand men, women, and children, suffered death in its most hideous forms, within a few months after their expulsion from Valencia.

(To be continued.)

ART. II. *A System of the Practice of Medicine.* From the Latin of Dr. Hoffman. By the late W. Lewis, M. B. F. R. S. Revised and completed by A. Duncan, M. D. 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. boards. Johnson.

THE decisions of time on the merit of authors are generally, but not invariably just. Of this truth, there are, perhaps, few confirmations more striking, than the fate of the works of the great physician, which now demand our attention. They are, we believe, suffered to enjoy nearly the same repose, on the shelves of our libraries, as the volumes of Galen and Rhazes; yet, we shall at once perceive how injurious such neglect is, if we compare for a moment, his doctrines with cotemporary or modern systems of medicine. Of Stahl, his colleague and rival, it is now universally acknowledged, that his opinions were fanciful and visionary, derived, not from an attentive inspection of nature, but the suggestions of an active and fervid mind. Accordingly, his conceptions are original and unborrowed; and he has avoided the errors of his predecessors; but his theory is evidently repugnant to common sense and daily experience, and has a tendency to degrade the physician from the vigilant adversary, to the idle spectator of the ravages of disease. The writings of Stahl are now indeed little read; but with Boerhaave, who held Europe in subjection for so many years, every student, who aspires to the praise of learning, thinks it necessary to be acquainted. Of the Boerhaavian system, the distinguishing character is not either

either just deduction from facts or fertility of such inventions as genius without the aid of observation can supply. Most of his opinions may be traced to preceding writers, and his principal labour seems to have been employed in polishing, and bestowing shape and consistency upon their dogmas. His theory has been gradually falling into disesteem, and in this country at present, is little more respected than the fancies of the Galenists, or the calculations of the mathematical sect. Hoffman was the first who perceived the emptiness of the humoral pathology, and of the doctrines of the chymists and mathematicians. He was also the first who perceived the necessity of paying great attention to the functions and disorders of the nervous system. He accordingly cultivated this part of medicine with the assiduity and care it merited: his observations are original and important; and it is well known that many modern teachers and writers are largely indebted to him; much of his superstructure has, indeed, not been able to withstand the injuries of time, but the foundation upon which he built, has all the solidity that truth and nature can bestow.

If it should be enquired, by what fatality an author, who deserved so well of the medical art, comes to be so generally neglected, it may be answered, that the vast bulk of his writings, and their never having been exhibited in an English dress, have produced this effect.

Dr. Lewis, in the work before us, has attempted to remove both these objections to the perusal of Hoffman. Dr. Lewis was eminently qualified for the task, by the solidity of his judgment, and his assiduous application. He is besides well known to have studied with particular attention the writings of Hoffman. Dr. Duncan, a good judge, observes, that his success has been equal to the expectations that might naturally be formed of his undertaking; "I have bestowed," says he, "no inconsiderable attention in revising and comparing it with the original, which, however, has served rather to convince me of the fidelity with which it was executed, than to add to the value of the publication. I have introduced several diseases, which Dr. Lewis had probably omitted from their being of little importance, or rarely occurring in Great Britain. By this means every part, section, and chapter corresponds exactly to the same number in the folio edition of Geneva." So few have ever even opened the volumes of Hoffman, that it may gratify the curiosity of our Readers to know under what titles he has treated, and in what order he has distributed his several topics. We shall therefore transcribe the table of contents.

PART. I. OF FEVERS.

SECT. I. Of Intermittent and Exanthematous Fevers.

- CHAP. I.** Of the Tertian Fever,
 II. Of the Quartan Fever,
 III. Of the Quotidian Fever,
 IV. Of Anomalous Malignant Intermittents,
 V. Of the Semitertian Fever,
 VI. Of the Catarrhal Fever,
 VII. Of the Variolous Fever,
 VIII. Of the Morbillous Fever,
 IX. Of the Miliary Fever,
 X. Of Malignant Catarrhal Fevers,
 XI. Of the Petechial Fever,
 XII. Of the Plague,
 XIII. Of the Erysipelatous Fever.

SECT. II. Of Acute Inflammatory, and Slow Putrid Fevers.

- CHAP. I.** Of the Inflammatory Fever,
 II. Of the Ardent Fever,
 III. Of the Inflammation of the Stomach,
 IV. Of the Angina,
 V. Of the Phrenitic Fever,
 VI. Of the Pneumonic Inflammation,
 VII. Of the Inflammation of the Liver,
 VIII. Of the Nephritic Fever,
 IX. Of the Inflammation of the Bladder,
 X. Of the Inflammation of the Uterus,
 XI. Of the Inflammation of the Eyes,
 XII. Of the Inflammation of the Intestines,
 XIII. Of the Hæctic and Slow Fever,
 XIV. Of Symptomatic Fever,

PART II. OF HÆMORRHAGES and PAINS.

SECT. I. Of Hæmorrhages,

INTRODUCT. Of Hæmorrhages in general,

- CHAP. I.** Of Hæmorrhages from the Nose,
 II. Of Hæmorrhage from the Lungs,
 III. Of Bloody Vomiting,
 IV. Of the Hæmorrhoidal Flux,
 V. Of the Uterine Hæmorrhage,
 VI. Of Hæmorrhage from the Urinary Passages,
 VII. Of Hæmorrhage from the Brain.

SECT. II. Of Pains and Spasms.

- CHAP. I.** Of Headach,
 II. Of Spasmodic Cardialgia,
 III. Of Pains and Spasms from Biliary Calculi,
 IV. Of Vòlvulus or Iliac Passion,
 V. Of Flatulent and Spasmodic Colic,
 VI. Of Pains from the Calculus of the Kidney,
 VII. Of Pain and Spasm of the Bladder,

CHAP.

- CHAP. VIII. Of Rheumatic Pains,
IX. Of Toothach,
X. Of Earach,
XI. Of Gout.

PART III. OF SPASMODIC AND CONVULSIVE DISEASES.

SECT. I. *Of General Spasms and Convulsions.*

- CHAP. I. Of Epilepsy,
II. Of Convulsions,
III. Of Wandering Spasms,
IV. Of Catalepsy,
V. Of Hysteria,
VI. Of Hypochondriasis.

SECT. II. *Of Particular Spasms and Convulsions.*

- CHAP. I. Of Palpitation of the Heart,
II. Of Spasmodic Asthma,
III. Of Convulsive and Rheumatic Cough,
IV. Of Singultus or Hiccough,
V. Of Spasm of the Oesophagus,
VI. Of Vomitus, or Convulsion of the Stomach,
VII. Of Dysentery,
VIII. Of Cholera Morbus,
IX. Of Abortion, or Convulsion of the Uterus.

PART IV. OF DISEASES DEPENDING ON ATONIA.

- CHAP. I. Of Paralytic Affections,
II. Of Comatose Affections,
III. Of Vertigo,
IV. Of the Gutta Serena,
V. Of Weakness of Sight,
VI. Of Affections of Hearing,
VII. Of Affections of Speech,
VIII. Of Mental Affections,
IX. Of Deliquium Animi,
X. Of Interrupted Circulation,
XI. Of Phthisis Pulmonalis,
XII. Of the Jaundice,
XIII. Of Cachexia and Chlorosis,
XIV. Of Dropsy,
XV. Of Flatulence and Tympanites,
XVI. Of Fluor Albus,
XVII. Of the Gonorrhœa.

PART V. OF EXTERNAL AFFECTIONS.

- CHAP. I. Of Scorbutus,
II. Of Mortification,
III. Of the Purpura Chronica,
IV. Of Lues Venerea,
V. Of Cutaneous Eruptions.

S U P P L E M E N T.

Of the Diseases of Infants.

The Abridger has confined himself, for the most part, to the practical part of the *Medicina Rationalis Systematica*, and the cases. And in this he will certainly satisfy the present demand for facts and observations, unadulterated with hypothesis. The language deserves also particular commendation; it is less mixed with foreign idioms and barbarisms, than translations in general. But it is proper to give the public an opportunity of judging for themselves, by submitting an extract to their inspection.

‘ *Of HÆMORRHAGES in general.*

1. Spontaneous excretions of blood happen generally in parts of a tender structure, furnished with numerous small vessels lying near the surface; as the inside of the nostrils, the bronchia of the lungs, the larger left portion of the stomach, the gums, the ileum, the extremity of the rectum, and the external substance of the uterus and vagina.

2. Sanguine persons, or those of a soft spongy habit and tender constitution, whose vessels are turgid with blood and serum, are liable at all ages to hæmorrhages from different parts. Those of a choleric temperament, whose vessels are larger, circulation quicker, and habit more tense, are most exposed, in their earlier years, to hæmorrhages from the lungs. The sanguineo-melancholic are seized ofteneft with hæmorrhoidal fluxes; and sanguineo-phlegmatic women, with bloody vomitings.

3. In childhood, hæmorrhages from the nose are most frequent; in youth, from the lungs; in maturer age, from the hæmorrhoidal vessels; and in advanced age, from the urinary passages.

4. Hæmorrhages of all kinds are most frequent in the autumn and spring, particularly about the Equinoxes, and often return periodically about these seasons, some chiefly at the one, and some at the other. The spring disposes most to bloody apoplexies, or hæmorrhages of the brain; the autumn, to bloody vomiting, and bloody urine.

5. Those who have suffered in childhood copious and frequent hæmorrhages from the nose, are always of a weak constitution, short lived, and subject to various distempers; in youth, to a phthisis pulmonalis; in riper years, to hypochondriac affections; and in age, to gouty and nephritic pains.

6. A disposition to hæmorrhage is for the most part hereditary, and quickly becomes effective, from external causes: exagitating the blood, as violent passions or exercise, hot irritating aliments or medicines, the imprudent use of purgatives, sudorifics, or baths.

7. Excretions of blood from a mere redundancy of the fluid itself, are salutary: those from a malignant acrid matter, as in some of the exanthematous fevers, are extremely dangerous: those from obstructions, induration, or corruption of any of the viscera, particularly of the liver, the spleen, or the lungs, are generally mortal, being apt to terminate in a cachexy, dropsy, the morbus niger of Hippocrates, or a hectic.

8. That a redundancy of laudable blood is the primary cause of hæmorrhages.

hæmorrhages, seems an erroneous opinion. The robust and laborious, whose blood is dense, and of a good quality, rarely suffer hæmorrhages : but to those of a lax habit and sedentary life, where the serum is in over proportion, they are frequent. The blood discharged in immoderate hæmorrhages, has but a small proportion of red matter in respect to the serum ; a sufficient evidence that the cause is rather a serous than sanguineous plethora.

9. Eruptions of blood from different parts are generally preceded by particular symptoms : from the nose, by a flushing and heat of the face, with a greater than ordinary tension and pulsation of the temporal arteries : from the uterus, by a lassitude of the body, pain of the back and loins, tension about the hypochondres, paleness of the face, roughness of the skin, and constriction of its pores : from the lungs, by an anxiety of the præcordia, difficulty of breathing, an undulatory painful weight about the diaphragm, flatulencies in the abdomen, and chiliness of the extremities : from the stomach, by a tense pain in the left hypochondre ; from the hæmorrhoidal veins, by spastic strictures, flatulencies, languor, chiliness, and pains in the os sacrum.

10. The immediate and direct cause of hæmorrhage appears therefore to be neither a redundancy, nor acrimony, nor tenuity of the blood ; but an inequality or obstruction of its circulation, from the constriction of some vessels, chiefly of those at a distance from the heart ; by which the blood is prevented from returning by the veins, and propelled more copiously into other parts, where the small lateral vessels, which ordinarily carry only a thin lymph, are distended, and at length opened. The contraction of the vessels arises sometimes from spasmodic strictures, and flatulent distensions of the stomach and intestines, as in the hæmorrhoidal flux to which hypochondriacal persons are subject : sometimes, as appears upon dissection, from an obstruction or induration of the viscera, particularly in the violent symptomatic hæmorrhages succeeding chronic diseases ; thus, disorders of the liver, distinguished by a greenish or leaden colour of the face, are accompanied with frequent bleedings at the nose, especially on the approach of a dropsy.

11. The cure of hæmorrhages is therefore injudiciously attempted by large and repeated bleeding ; though taking away a moderate quantity of blood, at the beginning, and as a preservative, is undoubtedly very serviceable. The rational method of cure consists, first, In the derivation of the impetus of the blood from the parts affected, by pediluvia, glisters, frictions, ligatures, warm cloths, fomentations, or baths : secondly, In relaxing the spasmodic strictures of the nervous parts : and, thirdly, In lessening the quantity of serous humours, by gentle laxatives, the milder diaphoretics, and a slender diet.

But the whole merit of this publication does not arise from the excellence of the general doctrines. It abounds with particular observations ; these cases must for ever be valuable, since they are truths, independent of any consequences the relater deduced from them, and since we may place entire confidence on his accuracy and fidelity.

Should the present abridgement meet with the favourable
recep-

reception it deserves, the works of Hoffman might still very usefully employ another translator. There are many of his detached essays, such as the English Practitioner will find it his interest to be acquainted with. But there is some reason to apprehend, lest the general eagerness for French indecency, and French infidelity should intercept the attention that is due to serious and useful works.

ART. III. *Four Letters on important National Subjects.* Addressed to the Right Hon. the Earl of Shelburne, his Majesty's First Lord Commissioner of the Treasury. By Josiah Tucker, D. D. Dean of Gloucester. 8vo. 2s. Cadell.

IN relating the rise and purpose of these Letters, the Dean of Gloucester mentions a conversation between Lord Shelburne and him, which will furnish a reader of ordinary penetration with a tolerable view of the characters of both. On a visit which the Dean made at Bow-wood, to give Lord Shelburne some information which he thought the Dean competent to afford; his Lordship took him into his pleasure ground, and there read one or two letters from a Nobleman of the first consequence; to which he added the following comment: 'You see, Sir, how much it may be in my power to serve my friends, and promote deserving men. I shall be exquisitely happy to consider you among the number.' To this the Dean answered, 'My Lord, I shall execute the task you have been pleased to set me, to the best of my abilities. As to any views of preferment, though I humbly thank your Lordship for your kind intentions, I have none at all, being quite contented with my station.' The Dean adds, 'It was very visible, that this answer rather chagrined than pleased you; and that the Peer did not expect such a speech from the Priest.' The world is exceedingly mistaken in that species of discernment imputed to Lord Shelburne, if he was at all disappointed or chagrined by the Dean's answer: for it is such a one as almost any Priest would make, while his heart may be panting with the hopes of a Bishoprick.

After attributing, very plainly, to the offices of the late Minority, a great part of the evils of the American war, and the spirit of resistance which discovers itself in Ireland, he turns his thoughts to the plans of reformation at home, which are supposed to be patronised by the Duke of Richmond, by many of the members of the late Minority, and even by Lord Shelburne after his accession to power.

The objects of the Dean's immediate attack, (if the intention of so desultory a writer can be at all defined) are the several

veral Committees of Association, formed for the purpose of obtaining an equal representation of the people. But he considers Mr. Locke as the first source of all the errors, on which the persons forming such committees proceed; and we shall soon see, the Dean, in the true spirit of a Polemic Gladiator, aims a mortal blow at the character and influence of that venerable Philosopher.

In opposition to the celebrated tenet of Mr. Locke, 'That government is founded on a contract, tacit or expressed, between the governed and the governors,' he states a curious doctrine of his own, 'Heretofore, my Lord, government was supposed to be built on two principal foundations, *opinion* and *penal sanctions*. Respecting the former, the *people were taught to believe*, that it was a matter of *duty and conscience* to obey magistrates, to submit to the laws of their country, and to *reverence* their superiors.' Though we are, by no means, disciples of Mr. Locke; and will allow with the most determined Tory, that every idea of the contract he alludes to, is without authority and foundation; yet that the body of every nation or society, is to be happy *its own way*; according to its own judgment and inclination; and not according to the interest and pleasure of a few individuals, whether nobles or priests—is a position capable of demonstration; because it rests on a few simple data, which cannot be controverted. The Dean's doctrine would be orthodox in most hierarchies; but it is not to be found in any code of reason or political philosophy.

The second Letter is designed to shew, the evil consequences of debasing the regal influence, and exalting the aristocratical or popular, beyond their due proportion. In this, there is one argument artfully introduced; and it may possibly have a considerable effect on the minds of those persons of property, who are, perhaps, rashly embarked in plans of reformation. He says, of the disposition to consider a king as a burthen:

'Indeed I am informed, this hath been said already [not by some worthless Upstart, or by the Unprincipled, Profligate, and Necessary; for that would have been no Wonder, but even] by a Man descended from noble Ancestors, and himself in many Respects an Ornament to his Country, but unhappily too much infected with the Republican Malady of the Times. It is confidently reported, that even this good, but mistaken Man hath said, *If we must have a K—, I should prefer the present to any other; but I do not see what Need there is to have any K— at all*. Little, surely, did he think, that with a very small Change in the Expression, and none at all in the Sentiment, the same Aphorism is applicable to himself, and to the very best and greatest Landed Men throughout the Kingdom. 'If we must have Landlords, saith the Tenant, I should prefer the present
' sent

sent to another. But I do not see what Need there is to have any Landlord at all. We are all his Equals by Nature, as free and independent as himself; and the Earth was given to us all. Therefore we ought to claim our Rights, and no longer submit to such 'Usurpations.'—Shall I add, that the modern Doctrines of the perfect Equality of all Mankind,—of their original, natural, and inherent Rights, never to be transferred, or alienated, and of the Necessity of contending for them even to the Death, tend to confirm all these wild and extravagant Conceits?—Yes, my Lord, they do tend to confirm them all; for they necessarily demolish not only *Crowns*, but *Coronets* too, levelling all Distinctions with the Ground. All ye great ones hear this, and tremble!

The manifold bad consequences, as he calls them, of disturbing the public peace and tranquillity, under a pretence of procuring a more equal representation of the people—we think have more plausibility than reason. Before he hazarded his censures, he should have demonstrated that the measures sought for are pernicious, and that the persons who promote them are interested and factious.

The last letter states, those which the Dean supposes to be the evil consequences, arising from the propagation of Mr. Locke's democratical principles.

Though, in this attempt, we may think the Dean has more zeal than discernment; yet, we should give him full credit for his apparent good intention, if his treatment of Mr. Locke's private character, were not a proof that his mind is biased and deeply tainted with the rancour and malignity of ecclesiastical and political bigotry.

In order to discredit the political principles of that great man, he endeavours in the following manner to blast his private fame.

'The other Anecdote' (meaning of Mr. Locke) 'is, [according to an Information I received some Time ago, but out of Tenderness to his Character, did not publish 'till compelled by the Violence of my Adversaries to do it, in my own Defence] that Mr. LOCKE was deeply engaged in MONMOUTH'S Rebellion; and that there are Proofs thereof still extant*. Supposing this to be the Case, [which perhaps cannot be positively proved at this distance of Time; but which nevertheless is very probable] his Conduct and Behaviour can be no otherwise accounted for, than on one, or other of the following Hypotheses:—Either, that he thought with Mr. HOBBS, that as the People was an *unruly Beast*, which must have a

* The Information given me was in the following Words. In the Harleyan Library, No 6845, there is a Manuscript, which, from Page 251, contains a Collection of Papers, relative to MONMOUTH'S Invasion, and other Intrigues. *Insertion* It appears, that Mr. LOCKE paid Money at two different Times, towards the Equipment of that Expedition.

Rider, it did not signify who got into the Saddle, MONMOUTH, or any other; the Rights of all Men being equal, provided their attempts were crowned with success:—Or he must have embraced Mr. SIDNEY's Opinion, who supposed, that Barons or Noblemen were the only persons fit to manage this fiery Courser. The Tenor of the Laws of *Carolina* seem to favour the latter Conjecture. For they gave as little Power to the Crown, as to the People, making all to centre in the Men of landed Property. Moreover, if he really assisted MONMOUTH, it is impossible that he could have done it with any other View than to have used him as a Tool during the Struggle, and to have set him aside after the Enterprize had succeeded;—or at most, to have compelled him to have accepted of the mere Shadow and Name of Royalty, without any Power, like a *Polish King*, or a *Doge of Venice*. For as to any legal Right or Title, MONMOUTH could have no pretensions of any Sort. And respecting the private Character of the Man, moral or religious, or even his Zeal for Civil Liberty, and for granting a religious Toleration, there are no Traces of these Virtues to be found in the Life and Character of the Duke of *Monmouth*. Therefore, if Mr. LOCKE espoused his Cause, it must have been not upon the best of Motives.

It is not necessary to point out to the candid Reader, that the imputation of theft, of murder, or of any crime the most abominable, might be fixed on the Dean's character, in the same vague manner in which he ventures to traduce Mr. LOCKE. Not being Mr. LOCKE's disciples, we are not interested in the matter, farther than by a regard to justice, and that tenderness which by all good men has ever been shewn to departed merit. If we were of Mr. LOCKE's school, we might easily act according to his motives and system; as the political principles of this great man are not affected, as to their truth and importance, by any thing in his private conduct. For who but a changeling, would think it of any consequence to geometry, that Euclid should have been temperate or debauched, pious or atheistical? This is only the mean artifice of very inferior disputants in divinity and politics; who, when they are at a loss for arguments, have recourse to defamation, in hopes to irritate the multitude into some outrage on their adversaries.

The Dean of Gloucester should have taken warning, by a narrow escape of severe and shameful castigation, for a similar attempt of defamation on a character much less popular, and much more questionable in England, than Mr. LOCKE's—we mean that of Dr. Franklin. The Dean—in order to discredit the American cause—asserted that Franklin when disappointed in his resistance to the stamp act, applied to Mr. Grenville to have his friends employed in collecting the tax. But it is sufficiently known, that the *lie direct* was given to him upon this occasion; and he was challenged to

remove the aspersion, by naming any Author, or stating any species of authority, deserving the slightest credit on the subject. The Dean however thought proper to be silent. It is also probable that he will be equally prudent upon the present instance. We feel ourselves instigated by generous motives, when we mark the Dean's defamation of Mr. Locke, as an unworthy and scandalous calumny if he does not produce his informer; and if that informer does not produce a copy (authenticated beyond suspicion,) of that specific paper in the Harleyan library, which proves that Mr. Locke was concerned in Monmouth's rebellion. It is but just that we give the Dean sufficient leisure to exculpate himself, In the mean time we take our leave of him; and if he does not appear in his defence, the public may believe that he secretly despairs of the cause in which he has engaged, since he can submit to assist his argument by the baseness of personal detraction.

ART. IV. *A Brief History of the late Expedition against Fort San Juan, so far as relates to the Diseases of the Troops. Together with some observations on Climate, Infection, and Contagion: And several of the Endemial Complaints of the West-Indies. By Thomas Dancer, M. D. Physician to the Troops on that Service. Printed in Kingston in Jamaica, by D. Douglas, and W. Allman, and sold by Murray in London, 4to. 2s. 6d. Sewed.*

MEDICAL police has not been neglected in any age, or in any civilized nation of the world. The laws of Moses are not confined to government, jurisprudence, and religion. Many of them respect the health of the people, and prescribe the most salutary rules with respect to food, cloathing, cleanliness, the burying of the dead, purification by water and fire, &c. &c. The usages of the Gentoos and other Asiatic nations, monuments of institutions more antient, perhaps, than even those of Moses, afford sufficient proof that the same attentions have been shewn by the eastern empires, in their most flourishing and enlightened periods. The Assyrian, Persian, Egyptian, Grecian, and Roman history are full of institutions relating to medical police, and if duly attended to, furnish hints, which, rightly improved, might contribute not only to the promotion of health, but to the advancement and increase of human enjoyments.

Medical police revived with the revival of letters. In the free states of Italy; in the towns of the Baltic, and afterwards in the Netherlands, and above all, in the Seven United Provinces, we discover in the public councils, a very considerable

considerable degree of attention to the health of the citizens. In France attentions of this kind appeared early, and in the age of Louis XIV. were greatly multiplied. England has multiplied hospitals, and at all times exhibited proofs of uncommon humanity and generosity. Its attention however to medical police has not, by any means, been equal to its charity, its wealth, and its wisdom. The great attention that has been shewn of late by speculative and ingenious politicians, to the subject of population, affords ground to hope that the health of the citizens will more and more attract the cares of a great, and generous, and enlightened nation.

A care of the health of soldiers and seamen appeared first in France. England soon followed the example, and, in this respect, as well as in others, has improved ideas derived from the neighbouring kingdom. Treatises have been written upon the diseases of the army, and regulations adopted, by public authority, for preserving the health of soldiers and mariners. The institution of surgeons to regiments tends not only to the prevention and cure of the diseases of soldiers, but to open many views to the legislature, both with respect to the care of the army and fleet, and the objects of general policy. Physicians have, thus, an opportunity of observing the *causes* of endemial diseases, and to learn their natures, symptoms, and cures. Thus, also, men of liberal education are enabled to give a just account of the climate, soil, and natural productions of the various regions, which, in their excursions with the regiments they attend they may be led to visit.

The Physician to the troops that went on the late expedition against Fort San Juan, embraced the opportunity which his station afforded him, not only of explaining the causes of that general sickness and mortality which prevailed among the troops, in that unfortunate enterprize, but of making various observations which might be of great utility in every part of the West Indies. Having given a succinct history or journal of the campaign, he proceeds to make some general remarks on the endemial diseases of the countries in that quarter of the world. In the course of his history, or journal, he recounts several curious and interesting anecdotes which relate to his own profession, and his experience of the proper treatment of the wounds and diseases of soldiers. Here he also makes many ingenious and curious observations in natural history. Among the causes of the endemial diseases of soldiers in the West Indies, the climate he considers as the chief. The country is overspread with wood: on the sides of the river which our ships entered, are numberless stinking marshes; and the rains fall in torrents

during the greater part of the year. And the history of all West India armaments, he observes, corresponds too much, from the same causes, with the expedition against Fort San Juan. The Author, in this part of his performance quotes these lines of Thompson's Summer, as a just and philosophical picture of the pestilential vapours of those parts.

When o'er this world, by equinoctial rains,
Flooded immense, looks out the joyless sun ;
And draws the copious steam ; from swampy fens,
Where putrefaction into life ferments,
And breathes destructive myriads, &c.

— Then wasteful forth,

Walks the dire power of pestilent disease, &c. &c.

Having finished this brief, but interesting journal, the Author proceeds to make farther observations on the nature and effects of climate, and deducing thence the cause of febrile contagion, he goes on to consider the nature and proper treatment of the great endemial diseases of the West Indies, fevers and dry dysenteries: for these complaints, he observes, though not essentially differing from those of the same kind in Europe, are nevertheless attended with some peculiarities, and require some variation in practice.

This little treatise is written in a modest and unassuming manner. It contains many observations both curious and practical: and it also discovers a very general acquaintance with medical writers, both antient and modern.

ART. V. *A History of the English Law, from the Saxons to the End of the Reign of Edward I.* By John Reeves, Esq; Barrister at Law, 4to. 11. 1s. boards. Brooke.

THE plan of this work is splendid and liberal. Dissatisfied with the writings of preceding lawyers, the Author was solicitous to atchieve the task of a complete introduction to the more antient law of England. He commences, accordingly, his researches with the Saxon times, and carries down his remarks to the termination of the reign of Edward I. But while we admire his design, we are sorry that we must refuse our approbation to his execution. It every where appears from his performance, that he is altogether unacquainted with the monuments of our history; and history being accounted the best interpreter of law, he is shamefully defective in the branch of knowledge in which he ought chiefly to have excelled. His book, of consequence, is only a motley collection of materials, and cannot be considered as constituting a regular work or fabrick. At the same

same time too, that he is ignorant of history and manners, he has evidently no turn for speculation or philosophy. He wished to go back to the sources of our jurisprudence; but the origin of laws, of doctrines, and of customs, escapes altogether his penetration. He arrives at the truth by no process of reasoning, and by no chain of particulars. He collects facts which he knows not how to employ, and it would be a prostitution of words to bestow upon him the name of an instructor. He digs in the mine of our jurisprudence; but being unable to separate the ore from the dross, his occupation is laborious, undistinguishing, and useless. His industry too, it is to be remarked, though it is the only praise he deserves, is confined and circumscribed in its nature. His extracts are taken from a few works; and while he understood not how to use them, he has left unconsulted multitudes of Authors, who might have directed him in the paths in which he has bewildered himself. As these strictures may seem to be severe, we shall take the trouble to illustrate them by examples.

Having mentioned the inferior courts among the Saxons, the Author writes thus

‘ Besides these, there was a superior court, that had a concurrent jurisdiction with them, known by the name of the *wittenagemote*. This court sat in the king’s palace, and used to remove with him. The judges, it is said, were the great officers of state, besides such lords as were about the court. The business of this court consisted in causes where the revenue was concerned; where any of the lords had committed a crime; and in civil causes between them. This was the ordinary employment of the court: besides which, offences of a very heinous and public nature committed even by persons of inferior rank, were heard here originally; and all causes in the inferior courts might be adjourned hither, on account of any difficulty, or their important consequences.’

It is almost impossible to have the conception of a more unhappy account of the *wittenagemote*. The Author confounds the king’s court with the *wittenagemote* or the court of the nation. The former assembled in the palace of the sovereign, but the latter usually met in churches and abbeys. The former obtained the name of the *Aula Regis*; the latter came to be denominated the Parliament. It is pleasant too, to observe, that the Author makes the great officers of the state to be the members of the *wittenagemote*: now these were properly the members of the king’s court or the *Aula Regis*; for the Saxon as well as the Norman kings had an establishment of this kind. The *wittenagemote* was constituted in a very different manner from the court of the King. It consisted of the King, Lords, and Commons. After committing such wild mistakes, it is not surprizing that

that the Author should give an imperfect notion of the business of the wittenagemote. It was in fact the highest court of justice and judicature; and it was not, as he absurdly supposes, contracted and confined in its powers.

Upon the nature of the landed property among the Saxons we have the following passage.

'THE next object of consideration is the nature of property among the Saxons: and first, of landed property. It has been a question, long debated among the learned, whether the lands of the Saxons were endued with the property of feudal tenure; or whether tenures with all their consequences were introduced by William the Conqueror. It would hardly afford much instruction or amusement at this time, to enter deeply into an enquiry which has been already so unsuccessfully discussed, and which has divided so many great names.'

The Author, by this strange method, avoids all investigation into the history and nature of the feudal laws. He affects to insinuate that neither instruction nor entertainment are to be expected from the consideration of this subject; and he thus indirectly conveys a censure of those great men who had wasted upon it such anxious study, and so much precious time. Does it become Mr. Reeves in the slightest degree to detract from the merit of Mr. Selden, Sir Henry Spelman, or Sir Martin Wright? In opposition to him, we think it our duty to affirm, that his behaviour is most improper; and that there exists not a topic from which so much instruction and amusement are to be derived, as from an investigation into the empire of fiefs. A successful investigation of this kind would every where throw the brightest light upon our history. But what may be considered as peculiarly surprising in the case of our Author, it is wholly impracticable either to explain or to comprehend the more antient law of England, without a minute and even a systematic knowledge of the feudal law. He is of consequence superlatively faulty by neglecting to acquire this knowledge; and in our opinion his conduct is not less ridiculous than that of the artificer who would build a house without a foundation.

When the Author has occasion to mention the book imputed to *Glanville*, he does not neglect to pay some attention to the treatise on the Scottish law, entitled *Regiam Majestatem*. But he enters not sufficiently into these works; nor does it appear decidedly from what he has written that the latter is a transcript from the former. He even does not seem to know that it is very doubtful whether *Glanville* be the Author of the work ascribed to him; and upon the subject of the *Regiam Majestatem*, it is pretty obvious that he had heard of no treatise, but that written by a Mr. Davidson,

Davidson at Edinburgh. Yet the comparative merits of *Glanville*, and the *Regiam Majestatem*, have been canvassed by Lord Bankton, Lord Hailes, Mr. Erskine, and a multitude of other writers.

After having made these strictures it is painful for us to observe, that similar and great objections may be applied to almost every part of the volume before us. But it is proper for us to lay before our Readers a specimen from which they may judge for themselves of the merit of the Author. For this purpose, we shall extract what he has said concerning the trial by jury.

We find in the reign of Henry II. many questions of fact relating to property were tried by twelve *liberos et legales homines juratos*, sworn to speak the truth; who were summoned by the sheriff for that purpose. This tribunal was, in some cases, called *assisa*; as it is said, from *assidere*, because they sat together; though it is most probable, and indeed seems intimated by the manner in which *Glanville* often expresses himself, that it was emphatically so called from the *assisa* (as laws were then termed) by which the application of this trial was, in many instances, ordained. In other instances this trial was called a *jurata*, from the *juratos*, or *juratores*, who composed it. Of the origin of this trial by twelve jurors, and the introduction of them into this country, we shall next enquire.

THE trial *per duodecim juratos*, called *namdda*, had obtained among the *Scandinavians* at a very early period; but having gone into disuse, was revived, and more firmly established, by a law of *Reigneras*, surnamed *Lodbrog*, about the year A. D. 920. It was about seventy years after this law, that *Rollo* led his people into *Normandy*, and, among other customs, carried with him this method of trial, where it was used in all causes that were of small importance. When the Normans had transplanted themselves into this country, they were desirous of legitimating this, as they did other parts of their jurisprudence; and endeavoured to substitute it in the place of the Saxon *scellatores*, to which tribunal it bore no small affinity.

THE earliest mention we find of any thing like a jury, was in a cause where *Gundolf*, bishop of *Rocheſter*, was a party, upon a question of land, in the reign of the Conqueror. The king had referred it to the county, *i. e.* the *scellatores*, to determine in their county court, as the course then was, according to the Saxon establishment; and they gave their opinion of the matter. But *Odo*, bishop of *Baienz*, who presided at the hearing of the cause, not being satisfied with their determination, directed, that if they were still sure that they spoke truth, and persisted in the same opinion, they should chuse twelve from among themselves, who should confirm it upon their oaths. It should seem, the bishop had there taken a step which was not in the usual way of proceeding, but which he ventured upon in conformity with the practice of his own country; the general law of England being, that a judicial enquiry concerning a fact should be collected *per omnes comitatus probos homines*.

Thus it appears, that in a cause where this same *Odo* was one party, and archbishop *Lanfranc* the other, the king directed *totum comitatum confidere*; that all men of the county, as well French as English, particularly those of the latter, learned in the law and custom of the realm, should be convened: upon which they all met at *Pinenadena*, and there it was determined *ab omnibus illis probis*; and agreed and adjudged *à toto comitatu*. In the reign of William Rufus, in a cause between the monastery of *Croyland* and *Ewan Talbois*, in the county court, there is no mention of a jury; and so late as the reign of *Stephen*, in a cause between the monks of Christ Church, Canterbury, and Radulph Picot, it appears from the acts of the court that it was determined *per iudicium totius comitatus*.

THE old trial by an indefinite number of *suitors* of court continued for many years after the conquest; but the precedent made by the bishop of *Baieux*, no doubt, had a great effect towards altering it; and, notwithstanding the practice might have continued in some counties, as we have just set forth, it is as probable that in others the Norman method might have obtained; a variety which must often have happened before the Norman law had thoroughly established itself. It was not till the reign of Henry II. that the trial by jurors became general.

THE sudden progress then made in bringing this trial into common use, must be attributed to a law made by that king. As this law has not come down to us, we are ignorant at what part of his reign it was made, and what was the precise extent of its regulation: we can only collect what intimation is given us by co-temporary authorities, the chief of which is Glanville, who makes frequent allusion to it. It is called by him *assisa*, as all laws then were; and *regalis constitutio*; at other times, *regale quoddam beneficium, clementia principis de consilio procerum populis indultum*. It seems as if this law ordained, that all questions of *seisin* of land should be tried by a recognition of twelve good and lawful men, sworn, to speak the truth; and also that in questions of *right* to land, the tenant might elect to have the matter tried by twelve good and lawful knights instead of the duel. It appears that some incidental points in a cause, and some few other particular matters that were neither questions of mere right, or of *seisin* of land, were tried by a recognition of twelve men; and we find that in all these cases, the proceeding was called *per assisam*, and *per recognitionem*; and the persons composing it were called *juratores, jurati, recognitores assise*; and collectively *assisa*, and *recognitio*: only the twelve jurors in questions of right were distinguished with the appellation of *magna assisa*; probably because they were *knights*, and were brought together also with more ceremony, being not summoned immediately by the sheriff, as the others were, but elected by four knights, who for that purpose had been summoned by the sheriff. We are also told, that the law by which these proceedings were directed, had ordained a very heavy penalty on jurors who were convicted of having sworn falsely in any of the above instances.

THUS far of one species of this trial by twelve men, which was called *assisa*. It likewise appears, that the oath of twelve jurors was referred

resorted to in other instances than those provided for by this famous law of Henry II. and then this proceeding was said to be *per juramentum patriæ, or vicinæ, per inquisitionem, per juramentum legalium hominum*: this was no other than that which we before mentioned to have gained ground by usage and custom. This trial by jury was sometimes used in questions of property; but, it should seem, more frequently in matters of a criminal nature.

THE earliest mention of a trial by jury, that bears a near resemblance to that which this proceeding became in after-times, is in the Constitutions of Clarendon before spoken of. It is there directed, that, should nobody appear to accuse an offender before the arch-deacon, then the sheriff, at the request of the bishop, *faciet jurare duodecim legales homines de vicinæ, seu de villâ, quod inde veritatem secundum conscientiam suam manifestabunt*. The first notice of any recognition, or assize, is likewise in these Constitutions; where it is directed, that, should a question arise, whether land was lay or ecclesiastical property, *recognitione duodecim legalium hominum per capitalis justitiæ considerationem terminabitur, utrum, &c.* this was A. D. 1164. Again, in the statute of Northampton, A. D. 1176, (which is said to be a republication of some statutes made at Clarendon, perhaps at the same time the above-mentioned provisions were made about ecclesiastical matters) the justices are directed, in case a lord should deny to the heir the seisin of his deceased ancestor, *faciant inde fieri recognitionem per duodecim legales homines, qualem seisinam defunctus inde habuit die quâ fuit vivus et mortuus*; and also *faciant fieri recognitionem de disseisinis factis super assisam, tempore quo the king came into England, after the peace made between him and his son*. We see here very plainly described, three of the assizes of which so much will be said hereafter; the *assisa utrum factum sit laicum an ecclesiasticum*; the *assisa mortis antecessoris*; and the *assisa nova disseisinæ*.

AGAIN, in the statute of Northampton, there is mention of a person *reclatus de murther per sacramentum duodecim militum de bundredo, and per sacramentum duodecim liberorum legalium hominum*.

THUS have we endeavoured to trace the origin and history of the trial by twelve men sworn to speak the truth, down to the time of Glanville: a further and more particular account of it we shall defer, till we come to speak more minutely of the proceedings of courts at this time.

With regard to language and composition the Author is highly defective and censurable. He is no where elegant, exhibits no marks of cultivation or taste, and is uniformly dry and dull.

ART. VI. *An Enquiry into the Causes of the Infidelity and Scepticism of the Times: With occasional Observations on the Writings of Herbert, Shaftesbury, Bolingbroke, Hume, Gibbon, &c. &c.* By John Ogilvie, D. D. 8vo. 5s. boards. Richardson and Urquhart.

IN the present state of the controversy with unbelievers, the appearance of Dr. Ogilvie may be considered as an advantage. Those persons who have reprehended the cautious insinuations of Mr. Gibbon to the disadvantage of Christianity, have used common arguments, or have been illiberal or acrimonious in the application of them. Mr. Gibbon's History, from the novelty of the subject (in the English language), and from a kind of pomp and splendour in his diction, is a work much read. It probably occurred to Dr. Ogilvie, that an antidote to the venom of this work, should be presented in something more important than a pamphlet. He accordingly undertook the present Enquiry on the following plan: He points out those causes of infidelity which arise from an artful misinterpretation of the Christian scheme; from an abuse of the Ministers of religion, and in general, of the pastoral office; and from the propensities, passions, and faculties of the human mind. He then considers the Christian scheme as the subject of scientific research; as containing the most perfect moral system; as having enlarged the bounds of human knowledge; as the means of softening the ferocity of man, and promoting civilization; and as having substituted for illiberal prejudices, enlarged and rational views of the divine government.

Christian principles, thus represented, are exhibited in the succeeding sections as they are mutilated, perverted, and defaced in the writings of modern Deists and Sceptics by the arts of sophistry, ridicule, and abuse. It is to these points, that the subject of the present work directs our immediate attention. For the Author supposes, the prevalence of infidelity and scepticism, to be ascribed to the influence of those arts, and to their successful application.

With this view specimens are given of the pointed ridicule of Voltaire, the descriptive satire of Shaftesbury, the pompous declamation of Bolingbroke, and the philosophical disquisition of Hume: and observations made to discredit them.

In order to impress his arguments forcibly on the mind, he recapitulates them; and concludes the whole with an address to unbelievers. As he seems to have collected his powers to give animation and interest to this address, we cannot

cannot better shew our disposition to introduce him favourably to the public, than by giving a quotation from it.

" If then the laws of Christianity, and many of its institutions, tend to promote virtuous practice, and to advance the interests of mankind, are you, Gentlemen, I would ask, well employed, who endeavour to undermine this fabric, without erecting any structure in its place of adequate excellence and utility? This surely may be said with strict propriety of sceptical philosophers, of whom the moderns, like their ancient predecessors, are employed in contemplating objects of which they cannot determine the reality*. The consolations of religion, and more particularly of that religion by which life and immortality are brought to light, whether justly or not, are highly valued by many of your fellow men. Let us grant that these men are the slaves of superstition; that all their notions are chimerical; in short, that they are fascinated by spells, conjurations, or what you will. The objects of their faith, how unsubstantial soever, tend to render them just, pious, humble, beneficent, humane. What right have you then to overcast with the clouds of suspicion and of dismay, a path in which men have proceeded formerly, under so much light, and in such perfect security? Why should you awake them from a dream wherein they enjoy so much satisfaction, and of which the effects are obviously beneficial? And by what arguments can you reconcile this conduct to any principle of reason or of philosophy?

" You profess, Gentlemen, to be admirers of the sages of Greece and Rome. And it is confessed that those men, having established *no scheme of moral principles by universal consent*†, wandered often in the labyrinth of sceptical fluctuation. Let us however compare, in a single instance, the sentiments of two eminent modern philosophers, upon the most important of all subjects, the immortality of the soul, with those of an illustrious ancient. We shall find, that what the former set themselves to disprove, and to expose to ridicule, the latter indulges as an idea that is pregnant with the highest consolation. We have already seen, that one author puts this doctrine upon a footing with " the tales of children, and with the amusement of men who play at football‡." Another would seriously persuade his countrymen, who have been bred in the belief of this doctrine, that, " while we are alive, we preserve the capacity of thinking, as we do of moving, &c. When we are dead, all these faculties are dead with us§." On the contrary, the Roman orator and philosopher entertains with transport the delightful idea of immortality. This idea he wisheth to cherish as being well founded; and should it be false, he desires not to be undeceived. *Me verò delectat, idque primum ita esse; deinde, etiam si non sit, mihi tamen persuaderi velim.*

* ΣΚΕΠΤΙΚΗ φιλοσοφία, απο του ΣΚΕΠΤΕΘΑΙ ΛΕΙ, και ΜΗΔΕΝΟΤΕ ΕΤΡΕΙ-
ΚΕΙΝ. ΑΛΕΞΤ. ΡΥΡΡ.

† Sect. 3. ut supra.

† Shaftesbury.

§ Boling. vol. 3.

“ How different was the opinion of Cicero on this subject, from that of your champions Shaftesbury and Bolingbroke! The illustrious Roman cannot part with a doctrine of which his own reason suggested the probable evidence. Our modern philosophers, on the other hand, far from supporting so idle and childish a notion among those who have been taught to receive it, employ all their powers to eradicate a principle that is subversive of enlarged sentiment, and unlicensed practice. Studying perhaps to inculcate the virtue of humility, they inform him who is clad with an imagined pre-eminence over other creatures, and who would regulate his conduct by this pre-eminence, that the moment at which the vital organ shall cease to vibrate, will transfer this superiority to the reptile that is pampered on his spoils!”

Upon the whole, this work appearing at a time when the principles of Christianity are assailed by very powerful adversaries, is a proof of the Author's own conviction in the cause he supports, and from the manner in which he has executed his task, reflects some degree of credit on his abilities. His performance therefore will be held in estimation by pious men, and should be read, not only by those who have occasion to be well-grounded in the doctrines of Jesus Christ which they profess, but by those also, who affect to scoff at, and disbelieve, the divine authority of that religion which they have never deeply considered, and consequently do not understand.

ART. VII. *An Enquiry into the Principles of Ecclesiastical Patronage and Presentation*, in which are contained Views of the Influence of this Patronage on the Manners and Characters of the People. Divided into three Parts. 12mo. 2s. boards. Donaldson, Edinburgh.

THE present is an æra of reformation, or, in other words, of revolution. That spirit of resistance and independence, which originated in North America, has pervaded every part of the British empire. But this spirit operated, and still operates differently in the different countries of which that empire is composed. The Americans contended for liberty; the British subjects in Bengal petitioned the House of Commons for trials in civil causes by jury; the Irish insisted on being governed by themselves; the English require œconomy in government and equal representation of the people in Parliament. While every other part of the empire looks for some civil advantage, the good people of Scotland seize the opportunity to crave the liberty of chusing their own ecclesiastics. A powerful party in the Scottish Kirk encourages and supports the people in this claim. Last year, this party deputed a ve-
ry

ry eloquent and popular Minister, who, being descended from an Highland Laird and a Country School-master, possesses the pride of the one, and the pedantry of the other, to persuade the Marquis of Rockingham to abolish ecclesiastical patronage. The Orator made a long speech to the Minister in vain. But still, it would seem, the clamour against *presentations* is loud. To increase this flame is the object of the performance before us.

The Author, who assumes the royal stile of the plural number, has divided a publication of 194 pages into three parts, each of which is subdivided into a great number of sections. He is indeed so formal, that he thinks it necessary to make an apology for giving a definition of terms not generally understood. All that is objected by the popular divines in Scotland, he has digested with great method. There is, however, nothing new or original in his book, except some analogies, by which he endeavours to prove, that patronages are not only a grievance, but an absurdity. A few examples of the analogical reasoning of this Writer, will display at once his principles and his capacity.—The friends of patronage maintain, that it is absurd for an ignorant multitude to chuse their own teachers. In answer to this argument, the Author observes, page 154, (for here it is really necessary to be particular) that “Clergymen are not properly speaking *teachers*, but public *servants* chosen to dispense and celebrate the ordinances of religion.” At page 87, he affirms, that the relation between priest and people, is just such a relation as subsists between husband and wife; and that “were a patron to assume the power of appointing a wife to every man in the parish, this power might be defended upon the same grounds, and with as much appearance of justice, as that of appointing a Minister.”

Upon these analogical arguments, we observe, 1. That it is evident the Author makes *wife* and *servant* synonymous terms. If he is a married man, we hope he does not carry all his doctrines into practice. 2. If a minister of the gospel be only, a servant, a machine for dispensing religious ordinances, why does this Writer lay such stress on his principles, moral character, and intellectual endowments? 3. If a minister be a wife to his parishioners, it follows that the people should lead the pastor, not the pastor the people. For is it not said in the fifth chapter of the Epistle of Paul the Apostle, to the Ephesians, and twenty-second verse, “Wives, submit yourselves unto your own husbands, as unto the Lord, for the husband is the head of the wife, even as Christ is the head of the church.”

Were the friends of patronage to reason analogically, like this

this Writer, they might, agreeably enough to the tenour of the sacred Scriptures, maintain that patronage is a civil right, and that whoever builds a church, and bestows lands and revenues for the support of the minister, is well intitled to appoint a minister, agreeably to the maxim, *patronum faciunt dos, edificatio, fundus*. The Author of the Inquiry overturns this maxim by observing that it is a *Papists doctrine*.

This extraordinary reformer censures patrons for their neglect to establish a venerable council, in which candidates for the ministry might be allowed "to make public trials of their elocution, learning, and abilities." Such a council, he says, might be composed of "characters the most celebrated for taste, learning, and abilities, invited and collected from all parts of the kingdom, both from among the laity and the clergy."

The only portion of this performance (although the Author does not want sharpness and vivacity) that is worthy the attention of a gentleman, is that from the 13th to the 17th page, which shews the connection between the enthusiasm of religion and civil liberty; but for this we must refer the reader to the work itself.

ART. VIII. *Torberni Bergman Sciagraphia Regni Mineralis secundum principia Proxima Digesti. Lipsiæ & Dessaviæ. 12mo. 1782. Nec non Londini. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray.*

A Sketch of the Mineral Kingdom; digested according to the Constituent Parts of the Substances that compose it. By Sir Torbern Bergman.

WITH such reverence is the name of Bergman pronounced, and with such avidity are his writings sought by natural philosophers, that we consider our being able to lay so early an account of the present Treatise before the public as a fortunate circumstance. That it has been sent into the world so soon must be ascribed to accident. Mr. Ferber of Leipzig, to whom it was communicated in manuscript, requested permission to publish it; the author at first hesitated to comply with his friend's request. When however he considered that a perfect arrangement of so many individuals could not yet be expected; that the corrections supplied by time might be inserted in subsequent editions; and that his essay would be more speedily amended by the remarks of many chymists, than by his own labour and reflections, he no longer withheld his assent.

The principles upon which he has constructed his system appear judicious and rational. After having shewn the insufficiency of the external appearance, he observes that "the classes, genera,

genera, and species, should be determined from the composition and properties, but the varieties from the external appearance. Such a system unites the advantages of the two methods. The compounds should be set under the genus of the principle which is most abundant in them. Thus suppose A and B to be the constituent parts, and A to weigh more than B, the substance formed by the combination should be placed under the genus of the former. This rule is, however, liable to exceptions. For of all substances, the properties are not equally *intense*, if I may so express it. Some have qualities so prominent as to impress their character upon the whole mass, though they are inferior in quantity. This circumstance should determine the distribution. Such is the case with clay and magnesia, which are not only never found pure, but are generally in less proportion than the other principles. If, therefore, the general rule should be rigorously adhered to, these primitive earths would not be placed among the genera at all, which would be absurd. The precise bounds are, however, very difficult to be ascertained. The value likewise must be attended to. Ores containing gold and silver, are classed under the noble metals, though other heterogeneous matters should make up above three-fourths of their weight. Pyrites, not to adduce any more instances, is placed under the genus of copper, though the iron greatly exceeds it in weight. Lastly, the solid principle is generally made the basis, though the menstruum is in greater quantity sometimes. Thus vitriolated magnesia has its name derived from the earth, though the acid exceeds it in weight, and so on with respect to alum, gypsum, &c."

The Author next proceeds to the division of the mineral kingdom into classes. His classes are four; salts, earths, bitumens, and metals. The salts are divided into acids, alkalis, neutral, middle earthy, and middle metallic salts. The class of earths contains five genera, the terra ponderosa, calcareous earth, magnesia, clay, and siliceous earth. Under bitumens we find three genera, sulphur, petroleum, and the diamond. The metallic substances are the same as those usually enumerated, if we except the addition of manganese, *magnesium*, to the number. The volume concludes with two appendices, one containing an arrangement of substances more compound than those before enumerated, the other respects petrifications.

Such are the general outlines of a plan simpler and more beautiful than any preceding mineralogist has formed. Of the manner in which each topic is treated, our Readers will acquire a very distinct idea from the following specimen.

"AR-

"**ARSENIC.** The specific gravity of the radical acid is 3,397; of white arsenic, 3,706; of vitrified arsenic, 5000; and of the regulus, 8,308. The muriatic acid and aqua regia dissolve it very readily, the vitriolic requires a boiling heat, vinegar attacks only the calx, but the nitrous not only carries off a quantity of phlogiston denoted by 109, by which means the metal is calcined, but a sufficient quantity assisted by a proper degree of heat, dephlogisticates the calx itself, so that we obtain the acid of arsenic uncombined. This phenomenon deserves particular attention, as it seems to unfold the general nature of metals: for it is agreeable enough to analogy to suppose, that every metal contains a radical acid of peculiar properties, which is *coagulated* into the form of a calx, by means of a certain portion of phlogiston, and that a greater quantity of this principle reduces it into a metallic state; but the radical acid retains the coagulating portion of phlogiston much more powerfully than what is moreover requisite for its saturation. The several *metallic acids* however attract both portions with unequal degrees of force. Thus the noble metals cannot be calcined by the *dry way*, and only by acid menstrua; but all the rest lose the portion of phlogiston, which saturates them in heat, though more or less readily. I have observed eleven distinct gradations of resistance. Gold is precipitated by every other metal, if we except perhaps platina, which I think should be thus explained. The calx of gold by virtue of a stronger attraction robs every other metal of its phlogiston, loses its solubility, and is precipitated in a metallic form; hence in the series of the metals the second place at least belongs to gold. *Platinum* is thrown down by all the metals, less however distinctly by gold; therefore the first place ought to be assigned it, and so on as I have taken care to mention in the character of each metal. Nickel, cobalt, iron, manganese, and zinc do not precipitate one another, and therefore occupy the eleventh and lowest place.

To obtain the radical acids pure, it is necessary to overcome their attraction for the coagulating portion of phlogiston. If ever the industry of chemists shall effect this, I trust that metallurgy will be wonderfully improved; but it will be a very difficult point to accomplish. I know that analogy should be trusted with great caution, but its proper use is certainly to suggest new experiments. Hitherto the experiment has only succeeded with arsenic, and it is worth remarking that this metal which occupies the fifth place with respect to the saturating portion of phlogiston, is inferior to all in the force of attraction by which it retains the coagulating portion.

It is capable of fusion, but must be at once exposed to the proper degree of heat, lest it should be calcined and sublimed. When the regulus is set upon a plate of iron heated to a certain degree, it takes fire, and is converted into a calx, diffusing an alliaceous odour.

Native ARSENIC combined with iron.

Cronstedt. Min. 239. I have never yet found it free from a mixture with iron.

Native ARSENIC combined with silver.

Californ ARSENIC, simply deprived of phlogiston.

Cronst. Min. 240.

ARSENIC mineralized by sulphur.

Cronstedt. 241. *Auripigmentum*, *Risigallum*.

ARSENIC with iron, mineralized by sulphur.

Cronst. 243. *A. Pyrites arsenicalis*.

In his Preface, the Author mentions a new and very curious fact, which we will not withhold from our Readers. He has discovered a method of precipitating the ponderous earth, by means of phlogisticated alkali. Hence, he suspects it to be a metallic calx; and from many marks of resemblance, the calx of lead; but having never been able to reduce it, he thinks it ought yet to be classed among the earths. But, in order to ascertain this point, and to improve his system in general, he promises to bestow great labour and attention; and hopes in consequence, that he shall be able in time to render it more complete. To recommend this treatise to our Readers would be superfluous. The great and deserved celebrity of the Upsal Professor will no doubt be sufficient, to induce every naturalist and chymist to consider it carefully and candidly.

ART. IX. *The general Prevalence of the Worship of Human Spirits, in the ancient Heathen Nations, asserted and proved.* By Hugh Farmer. 8vo. 7s. boards. Buckland.

THERE is a mutual influence of religion on literature, and of literature on religion. It was the religious spirit chiefly, that prompted the revival of letters. Men of ingenuity, leisure, and a turn to devotion, when they were struck with the vices and the errors of the church of Rome, had recourse to learning and argumentation, as the only means they could oppose to an authority which had blinded and enslaved the nations. An appeal was made to the light of ancient times; the doctrines of the church of Rome were canvassed with freedom, and its unbounded power was shewn to be founded in usurpation. The abettors of the Catholic superstition, at first declined to appeal to the tribunal of

ENG. REV. Vol. I. May 1783. D d anti-

antiquity and of reason, and attempted by an air-of authority, to silence their daring opponents. But the progressive spirit of enquiry obliged them to quit the shade under which they endeavoured to conceal the origin of their tenets and pretensions, and to submit them to the examination of reason. The Catholic priests, in self-defence, were obliged to explore the writings of antiquity, and ecclesiastical controversy sharpened the enquiries of antiquaries, philologists, and philosophers.

The vicissitudes of philosophy have, agreeably to these observations, in all periods of the Christian church, introduced vicissitudes into the explanations that have been given, the comments that have been made, and the theories that have been founded on the sacred Scriptures. From the writings of theologians, an accurate observer might ascertain the periods of the reigns of the most eminent philosophers, whether metaphysical or natural: of Aristotle, of Aquinas, Scotus, Clarke, Locke, &c. of Ptolemy, Paracelsus, Descartes, Bacon, and Newton. The connection between the Christian religion and a spirit of inquiry into antiquity; as also that between the theories of philosophers and the speculations of theologians, is strikingly illustrated by the writings of the learned and ingenious Mr. Farmer.

The unity of the deity at the time Mr. Farmer received his education and formed his opinions, was not only a doctrine of the Christian church; but of natural philosophy. The existence of one supreme first cause or mover of all things, acting throughout the whole of his works with design, but with perfect freedom, Sir Isaac Newton considered as the easiest solution of the great phenomena of the universe. An expression of this great man, equally bold and sublime, but which the piety of some scrupulous men has censured as somewhat free and irreverent, emphatically expresses his ideas on this grand subject. The deity he calls the *Senserium* of the universe. Similar ideas were entertained by MALBRANCHE, and by those philosophers who contemplate God as the immediate agent throughout the world; and all the mechanical powers, as well as the instincts of animals, as the immediate impulse of the supreme being, or as acts of divine volition.

“He ceaseless works alone

“And yet alone seems not to work.”

T. THOMSON.

Such being the state of philosophy, Mr. Farmer composed and published, “*Dissertations on Miracles* :” the grand purport of which was, to shew that nothing supernatural

tural had, at any period, been done by inferior agents, and to resolve all miracles into the agency of God.

The progress of the philosophical spirit, has led Christian divines to give philosophical explications of many difficult passages in the sacred Scriptures. What to common readers appear the plain relations of history, they view in the light of allegory. Thus, the stoic philosophers, in the reign of Augustus, and succeeding emperors, allegorized the Heathen Mythology. We are very far from instituting any indecent and unjust comparison. In both cases we only remark the progressive influence of philosophy.

In conformity to this spirit of philosophy, Mr. Farmer has given the world a very beautiful, and ingenious account of the temptation of Jesus Christ in the Wilderness. The temptations he considers as a scenick representation (not in a dream; but a vision) of our Saviour's life.

The work now under Review, bears marks of being written in a philosophical age: and all the writings of Mr. Farmer display an admirable knowledge of antient times.

The present publication is only a part of a more comprehensive plan; which is, first, to shew the general prevalence of the worship of human spirits in the ancient heathen world. Secondly, to inquire into the grounds of this and every other species of idolatry, or into the principles upon which the whole system of polytheism was built. Thirdly, to consider the high antiquity of idolatry, and more especially of that species of it, the worship of human gods. And, Fourthly, to examine how far the representation of the pagan gods, in Scripture, agrees with that made of them in the writings of the heathens; or, how far the two accounts mutually illustrate and confirm each other.

The first of these articles alone, is the subject of the present publication: and, as the Author labours to establish it upon evidence independent of the rest; so it may be considered as a distinct treatise, such as might have been published by itself, though no other were to follow. But the other articles we are informed, are in a state of great preparation for the press.

Mr. Farmer, in a long Introduction shews, in a very convincing manner, the importance of his subject; and having stated, and cleared from misrepresentations, the account he had given, in his Dissertation on Miracles of the heathen gods; he proceeds to prove, from the testimonies of the heathens, that human spirits were worshipped both in barbarous and polished nations. And having adduced such proofs of this species of idolatry as chiefly respect particular nations, he offers others of a more general nature, and such

as almost equally respect the far greater part of the antient world. These he draws from two sources : from the testimonies of the antients, and from certain uncontroverted facts.

The Author undoubtedly proves his position ; and by an admirable display of learning evinces, that the worship of human spirits was very generally prevalent in the antient heathen world. And in the course of this copious range of evidence, the Reader is amused by a vast variety of curious and interesting particulars respecting the history, manners, customs, and opinions of many different nations. The origin of the generality of the European nations is thus briefly described by Mr. Farmer.

‘ As to *Europe*, it will not be improper to begin with observing, that this continent was by some called *Celtica* ; a name which it derived from the Celtes, the descendants of the Cimbri, part of whom came from Babylon into the western parts of the world. Under the term, Celtes, were comprehended all those nations which were sometimes distinguished by the name of Scythians, Celto-Scythians, Gète, Gallacians, Gallogrecians, Cekiberians, Teutones, Germans, and Gauls. They were spread from the sea-shores of Britain and Gaul, as far as the *Palus Mæotis*, at the extremity of the *Euxine sea* ; and from the southernmost parts of Spain to the northern sea, which lies off Archangel in Russia. And if we except the southern parts of Italy, Greece, and the isles of the *Ægean sea*, all Europe may be justly said to have been peopled by the antient Cimbri, or (as they were soon afterwards called) Celts.’

In respect to entertainment, the best part of this work is, that which draws general proofs of the worship of human spirits amongst the antient heathens, from *FACTS*. The proof, which our Author brings of his general position, from the heathen sepulchres, is ingenious and interesting in no small degree.

‘ There has already been occasion to observe, that sacrifices and libations were offered in honour of *all* the dead at the places of their interment. Children were compelled by law to perform these rites to their parents ; and, where there were no children, heirs were laid under the same obligation to do it.

‘ No wonder, then, that religious honours should be paid to persons distinguished by their rank or merit. Alexander and Æphæction offered sacrifices at the tombs of Achilles and the Trojan heroes upon the plains of Troy.

‘ The tombs of the antients were sometimes built of stone, and called *Karns* ; but were more commonly conical mounds of earth, well known here in England by the name of *barrows*, which were raised over the dead body, or, in case of it’s being burned, over the bones and ashes. These *tumuli*, or sepulchral mounds, were sometimes built in the shape of altars, undoubtedly that they might be used as such, as they also often were when not made in this particular shape.

‘ But,

* But, in most cases, altars, distinct from the sacred mounds, were raised near them for the purpose of worship. The Trojans erected to Polydore not only a large tomb or mound of earth, but altars likewise, and sacrificed to his manes. Andromaché also raised a vacant tomb, and consecrated two altars to Hector.

“ Amongst persons elevated above the level of the vulgar there was a great distinction made, not only with respect to the magnificence of their sepulchres, but also in regard to the worship that was paid them. Herodotus relates of the Amathusians, that they were admonished by an oracle, *to sacrifice annually to Oneilus as to a hero.* To Phillippus, of Crotona, the Egistans erected the monument of a hero upon his tomb, and propitiated him with sacrifices. When heroes were exalted to the rank of gods, they were still more honourably distinguished. To what has been already said upon this subject I here add, that Castor and Pollux received equal honours with their gods: which implies that their honours were superior to those paid to heroes. The *taphos*, or tomb, of Jupiter, built by the Magnesiensians, who thought he was buried in their country, was a structure worthy of admiration; and every one knows he was the supreme object of religious worship amongst the several nations of Greece.

“ Princes and great commanders had their sepulchres dignified by a *cromlech*, which was composed of a large flat stone, in or near a horizontal position, supported by erect stones. The word denotes a consecrated stone or table. The repasts provided for the dead (consisting commonly of vegetables, bread, and eggs) were called *silicernia*, or *suppers upon a stone*. These stone-tables were altars, not merely on account of their form, as some suppose, but also on account of their use; the supper placed upon them being an offering to the dii manes. A learned writer allows, that the places round about them were the scenes of the parentalia, or where the dead were worshipped. Now, as this worship consisted, in part, in the celebration of a feast, it is natural to suppose, that the cromlech was the table or altar on which was laid that part of it which was designed for the use of the departed.

“ A very learned writer contends, that cromlechs and barrows were not places where the Gods were buried, but only where they were worshipped. When speaking of those mounds, in Greece, that were fenced round with a border of stone-work, upon the top of which a large stone was placed, he says, *They were looked upon as receptacles of the dead: but were high altars, with their sacred tupa, which had been erected for divine worship in the most early times.* The *taphoi*, (*taphoi*), he affirms, were not tombs, but conical mounds of earth, on which, in the first ages, offerings were made by fire. He represents the sacred tupa of the Persians as being set apart as *paratheia*, for the celebration of the rites of this element. The word (*taphos*) *taphos* is sometimes used, in a large sense, for a billock; but it was, says Mr. Bryant, interpreted by the Greeks a tomb. And adopting it in this limited sense, “ they formed a notion of their gods having been buried in every place where there was a rumulus to their honour.”

“ According to our author, *taphos*, *taph*, or *tuph*, seems to have been

been a word current in many countries. Now, might it not denote a sepulchral mound in other nations as well as in Greece? That it was misinterpreted by the Greeks, and by them alone, is a point which has not been proved, and ought not to be taken for granted. Besides, how improbable is it, that they should adopt this term into their own language, without learning the meaning of it, especially as it was in such common use in the nations around them? Our author affirms, that the practice of raising the taphoi, or mounds, in question, was transmitted from the Egyptians into Greece; and that many of them were raised in different parts of that country by the Amonians. Now if neither any instruction in the meaning of the term, nor even samples of the thing intended by it, could enable the Greeks to understand it, though the plainest in all their language, their stupidity is without a parallel, and discovered itself on more subjects than the names of the foreign gods. After all, if the Greeks were mistaken, in supposing that the gods had been buried in the places where there were tumuli to their honour, they could not have fallen into such a mistake, if they had not first learned, (from the Egyptians, and others,) that the gods had been men.

‘ If we only consider the nature of the cromlechs, we shall soon be convinced that they could not serve as altars for sacrificial fires; because no fire could be kindled upon them sufficient to consume the victim without scorching the officiating priest; because few, if any, of them, could bear the intenseness of the sacrificial fire; and because the table-stone of some of them was so very gibbous, that no priest could stand on it, either to tend the fire or oversee the consumption of the victim. Their size, and form, and quality, conclude equally against the notion of their being designed for the celebration of the rites of fire.

‘ That the conical mounds of raised earth were sepulchres, and the cromlechs sepulchral tables or altars, on which oblations of food were made to the dead, cannot well be doubted by those who reflect, that the barrow was one of the most ancient and common methods of interring the dead; that the cromlechs are found upon, and often surrounded with barrows; that the common people called them *grave-stones*; that a small brook near this kind of monument is called *the ford of the graves*; that the “area underneath the” quoit is very near the dimensions of the human body and every “kind of sarcophagus of the ancients”; and lastly, that underneath or near these monuments are found vaults, and human bones, and ashes.

‘ It may be observed, farther, that circular monuments also, whether open or inclosed, were often sepulchral: and that some of these circles were distinguished by a cromlech, which certainly was an appendage to sepulchres. Such monuments, according to Mr. Borlase, are found not only in Britain, and in the adjacent isles, but in Ireland, France, Germany, Sweden, Denmark, and other countries. And Mr. Bryant himself has proved, from Pausanias and Strabo, what might be more fully confirmed, that the Greeks had many sacred mounds of earth, and monuments, which they (who certainly were the most competent judges) regarded as the
tombs

-tombs of departed heroes. It is natural to suppose, that those conical mounds also, which have been found in Egypt, in Persia, at Troas, and other places, and are taken notice of by Mr. Bryant, were in like manner receptacles of the dead, notwithstanding what has been advanced to the contrary. Clemens Alexandrinus informs us, *that the places of sepulture which the Heathens worshipped were too numerous to be counted.*

From the facts that have been stated we may infer the general prevalence of the worship of human spirits over the heathen world. All sepulchres, even those of private persons, were places where divine honours were paid to the manes of the dead. Those tumuli and cromlechs, which have been represented merely as altars, were also the tombs and monuments of gods, and heroes, and other great men. The monuments were probably of Celtic origin, and were carried by that numerous people into all their settlements. Both the sacred mounds and monuments are found in all countries. Their use was in all the same; and was so obvious that it could not be mistaken.

As to the Heathens worshipping dead men *at the vestibule of the charnel-house*, which seems so incredible to a learned writer, the reason of it, which was promised to be assigned, is exceeding obvious. Even the philosophers maintained, that the souls of the deceased preserved an affection for their former bodies, and hovered about them, or the places where they were buried. The same opinion formed a part of the creed of the vulgar, and entered into the religion of the state.

‘Now what could be more natural than for the Heathens, who worshipped human souls, to do it in the places where they were thought to reside? Nor did they feel the difficulty with which our author was affected: for they paid divine honours to the carcases, the bones, and ashes, of men deceased, and even to their very coffins, and sepulchres; notwithstanding their being most unequivocal proofs of the mortal origin of their gods.’

He reasons, with like ingenuity, from heathen temples, pyramids, caves, houses, highways, groves, mountains, the statues and images of the gods, the rites of heathen worship, sacrifices and libations, blood, human victims, mournings, games, mysteries, oracles, and the remains of the same kind of idolatrous worship in Popish countries as that practised by the heathens.

On abstruse and doubtful subjects, learning and ingenuity may, with great plausibility, establish any theory. Warburton, the learned Bishop of Gloucester, maintained, that the immortality of the soul was not a doctrine of the Jews in the times of Moses, and thence formed an argument in support of that Law-giver’s divine legation. Mr. Farmer is clear, that a future life was, at that period, firmly believed by the whole Jewish nation. It is evident, however, that the texts of Scripture, which prove that death was considered as the final catastrophe and consummation of human ex-

istence are plain, direct, and obvious: whereas the evidence of the prevalence of the contrary opinion is indirect, forced, and constructive. The whole of Mr. Farmer's reasoning in defence of the doctrine that the ancient patriarchs did not believe that the soul of man perished with his body, we consider as a proof that genius, and the power of making metaphysical distinctions, frequently prompt and enable men to persevere in preconceived errors.

ART. X. *A System of Surgery*; Vol. I. By Benjamin Bell, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons at Edinburgh, and one of the Surgeons of the Royal Infirmary in that City. Illustrated with Copper-plates. 8vo. 6s. boards. Robinson, London. Elliot, Edinburgh.

THAT part of chirurgical skill which is to be derived from books is surrounded with difficulties, which are surmounted by few, and are disagreeable to all. An affectation of novelty in the mechanical branch of surgery, has made the press teem with books and pamphlets, explanatory of new invented instruments, most of which are attended with no advantage to balance the expence of their purchase. Every surgeon almost, has added to the list of instruments, but few indeed are the obligations which the public lie under to them. The young surgeon finds himself involved in expence and embarrassment when he wishes to extend his studies, and it is not till after a waste of many years, much money, and much experience, that he finds, that the best purposes may be accomplished by the fewest means, and that the numerous tribe of instrument makers, or cutler-surgeons, have been at more pains to evince their own ingenuity, than to benefit the art.

To obviate the avowed inconveniencies which arise from the multiplicity and expence of surgical treatises; to collect all the useful improvements into one place; to give the student that knowledge which is founded on experience, rather than the speculations of idle surgeons; in a word, to give a succinct, yet sufficiently comprehensive system of surgery, seems to be our Author's plan. The reputation he has justly acquired from his work *On Ulcers*, entitles his future attempts to every degree of respect, and we will venture to say, that by the present performance he will lose no part of that fame which accuracy and judgement confer. The demand for a work of this kind is very great, and fortunately it has been attempted by one who appears to have discernment enough to prune the luxuriances of voluminous writers, and retain only what is stamped by experience,

rience, and candour enough to admit the opinions of others to a fair investigation.

This volume contains the management of futures, ligatures, bloodletting, aneurisms, herniæ, hydrocele, hæmatocele, varicocele, cirrocele, spermatocele, pneumatocele, sarcocele, and the diseases of the penis, with their several subdivisions and connections.

In treating of these subjects, Mr. Bell is no fervile compiler. In every chapter he exercises great judgment, and without egotism or affectation of superiority, shows that acquaintance with the art which long habits of practice only can confer. His descriptions of operations and of instruments are simple and easily understood, and although the history of disorders be not complete, perhaps it is as much so as a system of surgery, strictly so called, will permit. Simplification of instruments, and ease in performing operations, are his chief aim. He occasionally differs from many of past and present times who affect a complication of machinery in their instruments, in order to appear inventive and sagacious. Surely the fewer instruments, and the more simple the better, since the tender feelings of patients make them view every thing of the kind with horror. It is not within the compass of our Review to give an account of our Author's method in every disorder. The following is an extract from his chapter on wounds or pricks in the nerves and tendons. After giving the symptoms by which we may know that a nerve or tendon has been pricked in the operation of bloodletting, he goes on to explain those.

'Different opinions,' says Mr. Bell, 'have prevailed respecting the cause of these symptoms: by some they have been imputed to wounds of the tendons; and by others the tendons are supposed to be so entirely destitute of sensibility, as to be quite incapable of producing so much distress; so that wounds of the nerves they consider in all such occasions as the true cause of the various symptoms we have mentioned.

'One or other of these ideas continued to be the only source for explaining the various phenomena found to occur in this malady, till a different opinion was at last suggested by the ingenious Mr. John Hunter of London. Mr. Hunter supposes, that all the dreadful symptoms found now and then to be induced by the operation of bloodletting, may be more readily accounted for, from an inflamed state of the internal surface of the vein, than from any other cause. Such a state of the vein he has often traced in horses that have died of such symptoms from venesection; where the internal coat of the vein was always found much inflamed, not only in the neighbourhood of the part where the orifice was made; but on some occasions the inflammation extended along the whole course of the vein, and seemed at last to reach the heart itself. Some instances too have occurred, of the same appearances in the human body,

body, where the veins after death were found in a state of high inflammation. And on other occasions, inflammation having in this manner been excited, has been known to terminate in suppuration; and the matter thus produced being in the course of circulation carried to the heart, Mr. Hunter supposes that in such cases death may have been induced by that cause alone.

‘ There can be no reason to doubt the fact held forth by Mr. Hunter, that in such instances, the vein in which the orifice has been made, has frequently after death been found greatly inflamed. But however ingenious his arguments may be, for concluding that this state of the vein is the original cause of all the bad symptoms enumerated; and although we must allow, that such an inflammatory affection of a vein must have a considerable influence in aggravating the various symptoms previously induced by other causes; yet I think we may very fairly conclude, that it could not probably in any one instance be able to account with satisfaction for their first production.

‘ In all the instances of this dreadful complaint which I have had an opportunity of seeing, the patient at the very instant of the operation felt a very unusual degree of pain. In some cases, the violence of the pain was almost insupportable. Now this we can never suppose to have been produced by the mere puncture of a vein; for, although the coats of veins are not perhaps entirely destitute of feeling, yet we know well, that they are not endowed with such a degree of exquisite sensibility, as to render it probable such intense pain could ever be induced by their being punctured in any way whatever. This inflamed state of the veins therefore, as detected by Mr. Hunter, after death, must be considered rather as being produced by, than as being productive of such affections; and that such ailments should frequently produce an inflammation of the contiguous veins, is a very probable conjecture. In the course of forty eight hours or so from the operation, when the febrile symptoms are just commencing, such a hardness and evident inflammation is induced over all the parts contiguous to the orifice, that it would be surprizing indeed, if the vein, which is thus perhaps entirely surrounded with parts highly inflamed, should escape altogether.

‘ We shall therefore proceed upon the supposition of this inflamed state of the veins being a consequence, rather than the cause of such ailments; and of course we now revert to one or other of the opinions long ago adopted on this subject, that all the train of bad symptoms found on some occasions to succeed venesection, proceed either from the wound of a nerve or of a tendon.

‘ That a partial wound of a nerve will now and then produce very distressing symptoms, no practitioner will deny: but it has been attempted to be shewn, as we have already remarked, that tendons are almost totally destitute of sensibility; and it has therefore been supposed, that their being wounded, can never account for the various symptoms known to occur in such cases.

‘ There is great reason, however, to think, that in different instances the same train of symptoms have been induced by different causes;

causes; that in one instance a wounded nerve, and in others pricks of the tendons have given rise to them. Being decidedly of this opinion myself, I think every person must be so, who has paid much attention to the subject; but as the same method of treatment proves equally applicable, whether the disease has originated from the wound of a nerve, or of a tendon, we do not think it necessary to enter here into a more minute discussion of the question. Having in a former section shewn how such accidents may be almost always avoided, we shall now proceed to consider the means best calculated for preventing the symptoms coming to a great height, when it is discovered that either from inadvertance or any other cause the mischief has actually happened.

Whenever a patient at the time of the operation complains of a very exquisite degree of pain, we may always be certain that some parts have been wounded which ought not to have been touched. When this unfortunately happens, if proper attention be given immediately, much may be done to obviate the accession of those symptoms which such a cause is otherwise sure to induce.

We pass over Mr. Bell's observations on the cure, where practicable by medicine, and come to what he says on that stage of the disorder which requires an operation.

It often happens, however, in this very alarming disorder, either from neglecting the matter altogether on the accident first happening, as is too frequently the case, or from an improper subsequent treatment by warm emollient applications, that opiates and all the other remedies enumerated, are afterwards had recourse to, without any advantage whatever: the fever, pain and swelling of the parts continuing, convulsive affections of the muscles at last occur; all tending to indicate the most imminent danger. In this situation of matters, if we have not immediate recourse to some effectual means, the patient will soon fall a victim to the disorder; and the only remedy from which in these circumstances much real advantage is to be expected, is a *free and extensive division* of the parts in which the orifice producing all the mischief was at first made. We know well, from the repeated experience of ages, that much more pain and distress of every kind is commonly produced by the partial division either of a nerve or of a tendon, than from any of these parts being at once cut entirely across. Now the intention of the operation here recommended, is, to produce a complete division of the nerve or tendon we suppose to have been wounded by the point of the lancet, and which we consider as the sole cause of the subsequent distress. The operation now recommended being attended with a good deal of pain, and being put in practice for the removal of symptoms from which it is perhaps difficult to persuade the patient that much danger can occur, all the remedies we have mentioned should be first made trial of, before it is proposed: but at the same time, care ought to be taken, that the disorder is not allowed to proceed too far before we have recourse to it; for, if the patient should be previously much weakened by the feverish symptoms having continued violent for any length of time, neither the remedy now proposed, nor any other with which we are acquainted,

acquainted, would probably have much influence. So soon therefore as the course already prescribed has been fairly tried, and is found to be inadequate to the effects expected from it, we ought immediately to have recourse to a free division of the parts chiefly affected; and the manner of doing it is this.

As all the contiguous parts are now supposed to be much swelled and in a state of high inflammation, it is impossible to get proper access either to the nerve or tendon, but by means of a large and extensive incision; and as this cannot be effected without some risk, of opening at least some large branches of arteries, the first step to be taken in this operation is, to secure the parts, against the effects of such an occurrence, by the application of the tourniquet on the superior part of the member. This precaution is necessary, not only for guarding against the loss of blood, which would ensue from a division of any of the large arteries, but for preventing interruption during the operation, which would otherwise occur from a constant discharge of blood from the smaller vessels. The tourniquet indeed is more particularly requisite with a view to the prevention of this last inconvenience, than for any other reason; for although it is proper by means of it to guard against the effects to be expected from a division of any of the large arteries, yet with proper caution such an occurrence may in most cases be very easily avoided.

The tourniquet, then, being properly applied, a transverse incision should be made with a common scalpel, upon the parts chiefly affected, and it ought to run in a direction exactly across the original orifice in the vein.

In every surgical operation, rashness is undoubtedly improper, and is often productive of disagreeable consequences; but unnecessary caution, which almost constantly proceeds from the operator being inaccurate and confused in his ideas of the anatomy of the parts, generally produces such a degree of timidity, as ultimately proves more hurtful to the patient, than even an unusual degree of forwardness; for in every operation where an incision is necessary, if the first cut is not made fully sufficient for the intended purpose, all the subsequent steps of it are commonly either much retarded, or perhaps rendered entirely ineffectual.

In no operation whatever, is it more necessary than in this, to act with proper freedom in laying the parts sufficiently open by the external incision. A small incision puts the patient to nearly the same degree of pain as a larger cut, and it has this material inconvenience, that the surgeon cannot go on with the future steps of the operation with so much ease and expedition as when an extensive opening is made at first.

The external teguments being thus freely divided, the operator is now to proceed in a gradual manner, making one slight incision after another, taking care, if possible, to avoid wounding either the larger arteries or veins; and he is to go on in this way, to endeavour to detect the wounded nerve; or if there is no possibility of doing so, even by great caution and nicety in wiping away with a sponge every particle of blood as he goes along, he must still continue to proceed in this slow, gradual manner, till he has divided every-

every part between the skin and periosteum; the tendons, large arteries and veins, excepted.

At this time the tourniquet should be loosened; and, in all probability, the patient will be found to express much satisfaction what has been done: For, if the part is thus divided which originally had been pricked by the lancet, and from whence all the subsequent distress proceeded, an immediate relief will now be obtained; but, on the contrary, if the pain still continues violent, we are thereby rendered almost certain of the mischief lying altogether to one or other of the tendons. An accurate examination, therefore, must now be made, by clearing the parts effectually with a sponge; and that tendon lying most contiguous to the vein in which the orifice was made, will in all probability be found either wounded, or in an evident state of inflammation; but at all events, whether any such appearances are detected or not, no hesitation whatever should occur as to the propriety of dividing that tendon which lies most contiguous to the vein; or if two, or even three tendinous extremities should happen to lie in the way, and to be all therefore equally liable to suspicion, they ought all undoubtedly to be cut entirely across; and this being properly effected, it will seldom occur that much relief is not immediately derived from it: and at any rate, this being done, every attempt will have been made from which we could expect any benefit to arise.

The parts having been thus freely divided, the tourniquet must now be made as slack as possible, and whatever arteries have been wounded, must be properly secured. The parts are then to be covered with soft easy dressings, and to be afterwards treated in the same manner as a wound from any other cause.

The remedy here recommended, if every circumstance is not duly attended to, may probably be considered as severe; for such an incision carried to such a depth, must no doubt be attended with much pain; and the division of one or more tendons, runs a considerable risk of producing at least a partial lameness, and that too probably of life, of the whole member: but if we consider for a moment the importance of the object in view, every consideration of this sort must immediately vanish. It is not a trifling advantage we are in pursuit of, nor can such a painful operation be ever with propriety had recourse to but from real necessity. In the present instance, however, it is clear that the patient's life is in all probability to depend on the event of this operation; so that the most timid operator, if he is at all capable of reflection, must admit the propriety of putting it in practice; and from the event of almost every case of this nature, that has once advanced to the length for which we have recommended the operation in question, it may with great certainty be pronounced, that every patient in such circumstances is in the utmost hazard of his life; so that in such a desperate situation, no remedy that affords any tolerable chance of a recovery, however painful it may be, can with propriety be condemned.

From reasoning alone, we would readily conclude, that in all such circumstances, no remedy whatever would more probably prove successful than the operation we have now advised; but when the propriety of the measure is enforced by the successful issue of repeated

peated trials, no argument adduced against it ought to meet with much attention. In different occurrences of this kind, of less importance, I have seen much advantage ensue from the practice here recommended; but in one instance, where the patient had been bled in the median cephalic vein of the arm, the disorder had got to such a height, and had so obstinately resisted every other remedy, that there was every reason to suppose death must have ensued, had it not been for the effects of a free and very deep incision made into the parts affected. The patient from being evidently in very great hazard, and in exquisite pain, experienced almost instantaneous relief; and the swelling, which had previously resisted the effects of every other remedy, and had even continued to spread, began soon to abate, and a perfect recovery was obtained in a much shorter space of time than could have been expected.

There is not, therefore, a point in surgery that I am more satisfied of, than the propriety of such an operation in all such desperate cases as the one we have been treating of; but to such as have not happened to meet with occurrences of this nature, the remedy proposed will not only appear to be too violent for the disease, but they will also be induced to consider the length of discussion here gone into to be much more prolix than is necessary: A single instance, however, of the dreadful symptoms now and then induced by accidents of this kind, will be sufficient to convince any man, that the subject now under consideration, is perhaps one of the most important in the department of surgery.

From the above specimen it may be seen that Mr. Bell sets down no doctrines at random, merely because they are to be found in the writings of eminent practitioners. Throughout the whole he exercises nice discrimination between the useful and the superfluous, and if the numerous tribe who have invented different instruments and improvements fail of meeting with an account of their labours in this Work, it is because the Author has had no experience of the good effects of such instruments.—The plates are accurate and serve to give as good an idea of the shape of instruments as plates can be supposed to do, and we have long been of opinion that that is but imperfect. The chapters on *Herniæ* form the most complete treatise ever published on that subject, nor have we in any of his chapters missed observations of importance, or found any that were not really so. If the future volumes be executed in the same manner, and with the same sagacity of observation, and plenitude of experience, Mr. Bell will have the merit of giving to the world the best system of surgery it has ever seen. If we might object to any thing, it would be the style, which abounds in inaccuracies, and bad English; but as there is no danger of misunderstanding any passage, this may be overlooked in an Author who writes to the head and the hands and not to the heart and imagination. We have only

to add, that he has very judiciously avoided the minutiae of systematic arrangement, and has placed the disorders one after another, according to obvious connection, or importance in the progress of study. His method, we believe, is that of the present Dr. Monro, in his Chirurgical Lectures.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For M A Y, 1783.

POLITICAL.

Art. 11. *The Sentence of the Court-Martial beld at the Horse Guards, for the Trial of the Honourable Lieutenant General James Murray, late Governor of Minorca, on the Twenty-nine Articles exhibited against him by Sir William Draper, &c. &c.* Taken in Short Hand, by Joseph Gurney. With an Appendix, containing General Murray's Defence and Answers to every Article of the Charge.—All the Correspondence between General Murray and Sir William Draper.—The several Councils of War—and the subsequent Proceedings of the Court Martial relative to the private Dispute between General Murray and Sir William Draper. With all the Correspondence on that Subject. 4to. 3s. 6d. Gurney.

THIS Writer is generally esteemed very accurate in his reports, but they are seldom long interesting. The Appendix which is subjoined to Mr. Gurney's composition contains, however, matter that may be read, not without a degree of amusement, long after the reports of the Short-hand Writer have ceased to draw the least attention. The attack and the defence of two brave and distinguished officers, who write, almost with the same fire with which they fight, form a subject, at all times interesting to an English Reader.

Art. 12. *Observations on the Ministerial Anarchy:* most respectfully addressed to the Consideration of the independent Part of the Constitution. With a View to future Prevention as well as present Redress. London. 8vo. 1s. Southern.

Although this Pamphlet be written in an absurd, bombastic, and often unintelligible stile, yet such is the glaring inconsistency of certain statesmen, that the Author, however ridiculous his manner, is for the most part right in his sentiments, and justifiable in his positions.

Art. 13. *An Enquiry into the Legality and Expediency of increasing the Royal Navy, by Subscriptions for Building County Ships.* Being the Correspondence on that Subject between Arthur Young and Capel Loft, Esqrs. With a List of the Subscribers to the Suffolk Man of War. To which are added, Observations on the State of the Taxes and Resources of the Kingdom on the Conclusion of the Peace. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bladon.

The legality and expediency of increasing the royal navy by subscriptions for building county ships, is maintained by Mr. Young, and denied by Mr. Loft. Mr. Young is of opinion that this measure carried into execution with celerity and with vigour, would strike

strike a damp into the court of Versailles, would shew the resolution of the people of England to recover the dominion of the ocean, and be the means of reviving the glory of Britain. Far were the spirit of glory roused among the people. Mr. Young does not despair of the resources of this country. Distress infallibly lessens consumption; but we find at present that consumption is not lessened. Therefore Mr. Young concludes, that the nation is yet well able to bear the burthens of the state, and is not by any means in a situation that should inspire ideas of despair.

Mr. Loft on the other hand is of opinion, that the measure recommended by Mr. Young would be slow in its progress, ineffectual in its operation, and, if at all practicable, would, under an imposing name, like the *hervolences* in former reigns, slip the yoke of slavery on the necks of the unguarded people. He therefore recommends to his countrymen, instead of raising limited and partial aids to government, to join unanimously in a petition for a parliamentary reform, by which justice and policy in the end proposed, and oeconomy and efficacy in the grant and application of aids, would be secured, and the common defence would be the common care. These Gentlemen carry on this controversy, which branches forth into many interesting particulars, with ability, eloquence, and temper, and both are evidently highly conversant in English history. But in our opinion, the advantage in point of argument lies on the side of Mr. Young.

Art. 14. *Political Reflections on the late Colonial Governments:* in which their original Constitutional Defects are pointed out, and shown to have naturally produced the *Rebellion*, which has unfortunately terminated in the dismemberment of the *BRITISH EMPIRE*. By an American. 8vo, 3s. Wilkie.

These reflections contain an historical sketch of the conduct of the American colonies, from their first settlement to the late dissolution of their several governments. The Author hoped that the power of Great Britain would have soon reduced the rebellion. In such a case, he conceived that an account of these defects which were the true causes of the revolt, would enable the politicians who should be concerned in forming a new order of government to avoid those defects, and to found a new political system on more rational and solid principles.

But while this Author was composing a book for the instruction of the British legislature, in the science of retaining America in subjection to the British government, America shook off the yoke of England, and by the aid of France, and English factions, asserted her independence. The historical deductions, and the lucubrations of this American, would therefore have been lost, were it not that he conceived they might be useful to those historians who "may hereafter undertake to unfold the latent principles which have gradually, and imperceptibly produced an event, that has terminated in the dismemberment of a great empire, if not in its final ruin."

Although there is no propriety or present advantage in this publication, and that it contains not, in our opinion, any views that could possibly escape the future historian; yet, it is written with judgment, and certainly does not discredit the Author.

Art.

Art. 15. *Six Letters to the Burgeſs of Ludlow*, containing ſome cuſſory Remarks upon that anonymous Writer's attack upon the Parliamentary Conduct of Richard Hill, Eſq; Member for the County of Salop. With an Addreſs to the Freeholders in that County. -By a Freeholder in more Counties than one. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

An anonymous Writer under the ſignature of *The Burgeſs of Ludlow*, had made an attack upon the parliamentary conduct of Richard Hill, Eſq. The Author of theſe letters, with plain good ſenſe defends Mr. Hill againſt the abuſe of the Burgeſs. Having premixed that it is equally improper and unConſtitutional in a man who calls himſelf a *Patriot*, to check the freedom of debate in parliament, as it is in a miniſter; and that the pamphleteer, who would ſtop a ſenator's mouth with obloquy and detraction, is of the ſame complexion with a miniſter who would make a mute by a golden touch; he proceeds to ſhew that all the accuſations of the Burgeſs againſt Mr. Hill, may be conſolidated into his *freedom in debate*; the *vein of pleaſantry that ran through his remarks*; and his *confeſſing the name and precepts of Chriſt*. The Writer ſhews that the conduct of Mr. Hill, in all theſe reſpects is juſtifiable and even laudable.

Art. 16. *The Baratarian Inqueſt*. A Fragment of the Works of the celebrated Author of *Don Quixote*, preſented by the Duc de Crillon to the Tranſlator, and dedicated to Sir William Draper. 8vo. 3s. ſewed. Debrett.

This pamphlet contains a mock-representation of the charges brought before the Court Martial, by Sir William Draper againſt General Murray. It is written in imitation of the manner of Cervantes. The Judge appears in the character of Sancho, exerciſing the office of governor of his iſland. Sancho's mouth is filled by the Author, who ſeems to be acquainted with the Spaniſh language, with abundance of proverbs. The humour of *The Baratarian Inqueſt* conſiſts chiefly, if not ſolely, in the Spaniſh names applied to the different perſons who appeared at the trial, either as parties concerned, judges, or witneſſes. A ſecond part is published to this pamphlet which is of equal merit with the firſt.

Art. 17. *The Chronicle of the Kingdom of the Caſſiterides, under the Reign of the Houſe of Lunen*. A Fragment, tranſlated from an ancient Manuſcript. 1s. Wilkie.

This performance exhibits an account of the troubles with America, which is affectedly myſterious. But the ſatire couched in it is not of a nature to juſtify darkneſs or myſtery; and the manner aſſumed by the Writer has nothing in it that is witty. To imitate the ſtyle of the Holy Scriptures is too eaſy a taſk to entitle it to praiſe; and this negative merit is all that can belong to the Author of this tract. As a ſatyriſt he is without point; and it cannot be pretended that he had any new information to communicate to the public. It is alſo to be obſerved, that he has expoſed himſelf in ſome degree to the imputation of profaneſs by endeavouring to make a parody of the ſcriptural language.

Art. 18. *An Eſſay on Republican Principles, and on the Inconveniencies of a Commonwealth in a large Country and Nation*: *Eng. Rev. Vol. I. May 1783.* E c *Illuſ.*

Illustrated by Examples from ancient and modern History ; and concluding with some Reflections on the present Situation of Great Britain. By John Andrews, L. L. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardson and Urquhart.

From historical researches into the various modes of government adopted in different countries by divers nations, from the present state of mankind in most countries, and from the history of Great Britain, Dr. Andrews endeavours to prove in a cool and convincing manner, that a republican government is not adapted to *our* situation and circumstances ; and that such a government is utterly inconsistent with the temper, disposition, and interest of a great and powerful people. In this Essay we meet with many observations on the genius of the different forms of government, on the tendency of republics to monarchical power, on the nature of faction, and the features that mark the temper and situation of the people of England in the present moment.

Art. 19. *The Nature and Extent of supreme Power, in a Letter to the Reverend David Williams (Author of Letters on Political Liberty) shewing the ultimate End of all Human Power, and of a free Government under God, &c. &c.* By M. Dawes, Esq; 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

The Letters on Political Liberty have been extremely well received by the Public ; but not certainly understood to be the production of the Reverend David Williams. The Author had his reasons, no doubt, for concealing his name ; and if that Author be Mr. Williams, those reasons must be obvious : they might not have been so favourably reviewed, or so candidly read. Mr. Dawes, therefore, should have attacked *The Letters on Political Liberty*, without introducing the name of the supposed author.

Mr. Dawes's attack is also too general and desultory. *The Letters on Political Liberty*, have a peculiar and novel doctrine, which Mr. Dawes takes no notice of, viz. a reserved power of controul and judgment in the whole society, arranged for the purpose, *after* it has delegated a legislation, as well as an executive and judiciary power. This problem is worked in the letters, with great accuracy and attention : and the Writer, whoever he be, seems disposed to stake his reputation on his ability to bring it to a demonstration.

This, which may be called, the citadel of the work, Mr. Dawes avoids, for reasons best known to himself. He however lays about him, at random ; sometimes having a gentle blow at the Author ; sometimes at Mr. Locke, and if we recollect rightly, sometimes at Montesquieu. Mr. Dawes however, is an advocate for power in higher and better hands than those of the people ; and he has a greater chance of being Attorney General than the Author of *the Letters on Political Liberty*.

This performance is addressed, for what reason we cannot perceive, to the Society for Constitutional Information. We have not learnt that the society returned the Author thanks for the honour he has done it.

Art. 20. *Serious Matter for the Consideration of the Members of both House of Parliament during the Christmas Recess.* Being Proposals for disposing of Convicts, and for rendering them useful to the

the Community, in a Manner agreeable to the Ideas of several Magistrates. By an Independent Man. 8vo. 6d. Pote.

The disorders that affect our police, the Author observes, are unparalleled in the history of the former part of this century in any country of Europe; and, what is more wonderful, this happens at a time when enormous bounties and rewards are given to recruit our army and navy. He proposes to render a number of able-bodied men and boys, who have been, or may hereafter be convicted of trivial offences useful *in the navy*, and in merchant ships. This desirable effect he thinks might be produced by means of a course of cleansing, physicking, exercising, and salutary discipline. Those that may be rejected by the navy and merchants service, he proposes to send to the island of Shetland (off the northern extremity of Scotland) "where they may be fed on herrings, stock-fish and grots, and be obliged to do something for their living, for any stipulated period of time, under masters who should have powers in a great measure discretionary. They might thus be maintained at the rate of six or seven pounds a year an individual; whereas the charge of keeping the convicts is said to have amounted to more than 40 l. per annum each."

Art. 21. *The Inadequacy of Parliamentary Representation fully stated*, its pernicious Consequences enlarged on, and the Objections to a Reform answered. Most earnestly addressed to every Member of Parliament and Elector in the Kingdom. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Kearsley.

The Author of this pamphlet states the prodigious inequality in the parliamentary representation of the people of England, and desires any of those who plead for the continuance of that enormous grievance to detect him in any material error. He recommends, as a remedy for this evil, not to shorten the duration of parliaments, which he thinks would be wholly ineffectual, but to equalize parliamentary representation.

He endeavours to answer the objections to a reform, 1. By shewing that various reforms have actually been effected in the political constitution of England. 2. By alledging that the risque we run in making innovations, with regard to the defective representation of the people in parliament, is but trifling. But that if it were ever so important, we are justified in applying a desperate remedy to a desperate disease. "For every calamity, he maintains, that has befallen this country is wholly to be ascribed to our defective representation."

The introduction to this pamphlet is, if not the most valuable in respect of political importance, at least the most ingenious, and the best intitled to the approbation of Literary Criticism. It contains a striking contrast of the spirit of the Romans in times of liberty with their servility, under a despotic government in the times of the Emperors. We also find, both in the Introduction, and in other parts of the pamphlet very just and ingenious observations on the nature, the symptoms, and the effects of luxury and corruption.

Art. 22. *Thoughts on the Difficulties, &c.* in which the People of England will be left by the Peace of 1783; on the present disposition of the English, Scotch, and Irish to emigrate to

America, and on the hazard they run (without certain Precautions) of rendering their Condition more deplorable. Addressed to the Right Honourable Charles James Fox. By John King, Esq. rs. 6d. 8vo. Fielding.

This is one of the most extraordinary pamphlets we have ever perused. It holds before the public some of the most important objects which can engage its attention at this time; and the observations relating to them are ingenious and useful. But the great object of the Work seems to be, to shew the Author's talent at satire. It is addressed to Charles Fox, in such a dedication as we believe was never offered to a minister by a man who signed his name to the insult. If Charles Fox be such a man, as Mr. King says *he knows him to be*; (and Mr. King we understand has been in the money business) if he has out-witted sharpers, and out-swindled swindlers in the manner here hinted at; we know no community, on this side the infernal regions, in which he should be publicly or privately employed. But we will leave these things to be settled between Mr. Fox and Mr. King.

The pamphlet is written with great spirit, shrewdness, and knowledge of the world; and in general with considerable happiness and elegance of style. It bears however, many marks of haste and precipitation. The information is good, but scanty. The characters in it, are all bad; and they are too severely treated; and the language sometimes improperly swells into ornament. The Author plunges his satirical knife into the bowels of a man, while he is amusing him with tropes and figures. In short, we know not many manufacturers of pamphlets, whose satire is more pointed than that of Mr. King.

Art. 23. *An Address to the landed Gentlemen of Scotland*, upon the Subject of nominal and fictitious Qualifications used in the Elections of Members of Parliament for the Shires of Scotland. With Observations upon two Sketches of Bills presented to the standing Committee upon Freehold Qualifications at Edinburgh. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

The Author of the address shews, very clearly, that from the multiplicity of penalties and forfeitures to which the vassals of subjects in Scotland were antiently liable, they were in a wretched state of vile dependence and slavery, and unworthy of holding a place in the great council of the nation. But in modern times he observes, matters are entirely changed. And now the superior's right is for the most part little more than nominal, and the substantial right of property is in the vassal alone, a circumstance which according to the spirit of the constitution of Scotland, intitles him, as the Author proves from the laws and history of his country, to the privilege of electing or being elected a commissioner to serve in parliament. Both in the ADDRESS, and the OBSERVATIONS subjoined, the Author shews in a very convincing manner, the injustice or usurpation, as well as the political disadvantages of nominal and fictitious votes.

Art. 24. *The true Alarm*: consisting of, 1. A Descant on the present national Propensity, 2. A Sketch of a Refutation of Mr. Locke, being the seventh Letter of the Candid Suggestions. 3. An Appendix, containing a friendly Challenge, and Thoughts

on the ruinous Consequences of an equal Representation. By N. Turner, M. A. Author of the Candid Suggestions. 8vo. 1s. Lowndes.

It is the object of Mr. Turner, in this performance, to moderate the rage for the reformation of the constitution, and to shew that unless the rights of the crown be preserved, the rights of the people cannot long subsist. If he appears to differ in some things from Mr. Locke, it is not because he disapproves his principles, but because he is alarmed at their excess: and his subject, he is confident, would have been treated by Mr. Locke, had he been now alive, in the very same spirit with which it has been treated by himself. It is undoubtedly true, as Mr. Turner observes, "that the extreme of liberty is equally dangerous with that of slavery; or rather that these extremes meet in one point, and are scarcely distinguishable from each other." Mr. Turner writes with freedom, candor, and judgment.

Art. 25. *A Letter to a Patriot Senator.* Including the Heads of a Bill for a Constitutional Representation of the People 8vo. 1s. No Bookseller's Name.

Amidst that vast variety of opinions in political matters, which characterize the inhabitants of this free country, it is not to be expected, that if we suffer ourselves, in our projects for the reformation of our constitution, to reason from what each of us may think to be the spirit of universal government, and the transcendental rights of our species, we should ever agree in one plan. The Author therefore of this letter, in establishing the foundations of the plan of reformation which he proposes, argues from the rules and maxims, transmitted to us by our forefathers. By this mode of reasoning, he justly observes, we are enabled to give all cavillers this satisfactory answer. "Such is the constitution or public law of our country, than which no individual must esteem himself wiser."

In the course of our Author's reasoning we discover acuteness, and acquaintance with history: but a prejudice in favour of his own system has led him to construct certain statutes, not according to their obvious meaning, but to his own views.

His system of political reformation, he has drawn up in the form of a bill. The substance of it is shortly this, "That every person *capable* (or that *can*, which is his phrase) earn a clear and *certain* income of twenty-five pounds to fifty, shall have a vote in the election of a member of parliament."

Art. 26. *Hints addressed to the Public.* Calculated to dispel the gloomy Ideas which have been lately entertained of the State of our Finances. By John Sinclair, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

Mr. Sinclair having censured with a just, though polite severity, the impolicy of exaggerating and exposing the weakness of the country to our enemies, proceeds to state the annual income of the nation; its annual expence; its unfunded debt; and remaining resources. From a view of these particulars, he concludes, in opposition to the Earl of Stair, "That the finances of this country are not in so desperate a state as they are commonly represented; and that our situation will be still more prosperous, if wise and judicious plans are entered into for discharging the most burthenome of our

incumbrances ; which a clear sinking fund of two millions, joined to the gradual accessions, from the falling in of the temporary annuities, will enable us to effect."

There are in this pamphlet several judicious observations. But as political calculations do not admit of arithmetical exactness, there is room for the colourings of a despondent, or of a sanguine temper. Mr. Sinclair is rather sanguine.

Art. 27. *Observations on some Parts of the Answer of Earl Cornwallis to Sir Henry Clinton's Narrative.* By Lieutenant General Sir Henry Clinton, K. B. To which is added, an Appendix, containing Extracts of Letters and other Papers ; to which Reference is necessary. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett.

These observations are acute, and have a polite asperity. The two commanders are very much dissatisfied with one another ; and it appears to be more than probable that there are faults upon both sides. Their frequent appeals to the public will not tend to advance them in its opinion ; and the sooner they drop their controversy they will be the less exposed to censure. Their apologies are written with so little art and skill, that their perusal becomes a task ; and the Reader who wishes to be informed by them, regrets that they were not so provident as to engage with men of letters, who could have availed themselves fully of their information and arguments, and have given them the advantages of method and dress. Though it is not absolutely necessary that commanders should be fine writers, it is yet shameful that men of rank and condition should not be able to express themselves with a common degree of propriety and elegance. We profess not to judge of the matters of difference between the two combatants. It is only in their character of Authors that we have any concern with them ; and it is a pain to us that in this respect, we must withhold our approbation.

D I V I N I T Y.

Art. 28. *A new Concordance to the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament.* Also the different Significations of many important Words, by which their Meaning is opened ; and often seeming Contradictions reconciled. Likewise a short Account of several Jewish Customs and Ceremonies, by which many Parts of Scripture are illustrated. To which is added, an Explication of the most material Names, especially of Persons in the Old and New Testament ; as also the Titles and Appellations given to Christ and his Church. By Thomas Taylor. 4s. 6d. C. Dilly.

This abridgement of Cruden's Concordance seems to be executed with care, and sufficient correctness. Its price must be a recommendation to many who wish to study the sacred scriptures with attention, and who cannot afford to purchase Mr. Cruden's larger work.

Art. 29. *Fourteen Discourses on practical Subjects.* By the late Rev. Geo. Innes of Aberdeen. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Murray.

These plain and practical discourses are on the following subjects. " The comforts of a religious life ; on humility and trust in God ; early piety inculcated and recommended ; our affections should be fixed

fixed on God only; observance of God's laws the only true wisdom; hope of eternal life the only sure foundation of happiness; and the advantages arising from good company displayed." Though not remarkable either for novelty of arrangement or argument, nor conspicuous for elegance of style, yet there is a warmth in the manner, that will recommend these sermons to the devout Christian: the method too in which the Author treats his subjects, evinces that he was not unacquainted with the world, and possessed no inconsiderable knowledge of the human heart.

Art. 30. *The Bishop of Bristol's Sermon preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, on Thursday January 30, 1783.* Being the Day appointed to be observed as the Day of the Martyrdom of King Charles the 1st. 1s. Cadell.

This learned Prelate, from Psalm 76, Verse 10. *Surely the wrath of man shall praise thee, the remainder of wrath shalt thou restrain,* demonstrates the necessity of God's moral government of the world; and proves, that however conscious mankind may be of their own freedom in following the impulses of their passions, the effects which they produce are regulated and directed by a superior power. Hence the violation of laws, both divine and human, is converted to the welfare of society. To trace, however, the salutary effects of divine interposition, is not always within the reach of human ability. The eye of man is often bewildered in the intricacy of the prospect; and lost in the vanity of his own conceits. From the same fountain, sweet water and bitter are conceived to flow; and what is by one, considered as an instance of divine mercy, is by another, esteemed a mark of Almighty vengeance. There are not wanting some, who reckon the execution of Charles the First, an act highly just, salutary, and meritorious; whilst others, with this *loyal* bishop, think it black with reproach, infamy, and injustice.

"The whole volume of history doth not exhibit an event (one only excepted) which considered in all its circumstances, admits of more serious and useful reflection than that which we this day commemorate. Our attention to this object is now called for, not simply by the regular return of a stated day, (though that of itself, to well-disposed and modest minds, is no trifling matter) but also by very striking circumstances in the present situation of our country; by the pointed suggestion too of him to whose charge the chief management of our public interests, under God, is delegated; whom we heard but now, in the spirit and piety of his great ancestor, in the genuine spirit of christian charity, and with a dignity becoming his high station, imploring the Almighty, that the very persons who have violently thrown off their allegiance to his mild and temperate government, "may be free from those calamities which, in the last age, proved in the Mother Country how essential Monarchy is to the enjoyment of constitutional Liberty*." What and how great those calamities were, few can be wholly ignorant: the full extent of them cannot be better understood than from the terms

* King's Speech, Dec. 5, 1782.

in which the noble Historian of the time hath described that year when they reached their highest point. "*A year of reproach and infamy above all years which had passed before it; a year of the highest Dissimulation and Hypocrisy, of the deepest Villany and most bloody Treasons that any nation was ever cursed with or under.*"

Whether we should have enjoyed the same degree of freedom which we at present experience, had that event not taken place, may be a matter of doubt and speculation; but that liberty is now fixed on a firmer basis, and her blessings bestowed upon us in greater profusion, than during the reign of that unhappy prince, is a pleasing and indisputable truth. Be it to providence, that we owe this inestimable possession;—we, at least, ought to shew our gratitude by our zeal and firmness in defending it. When our ancestors laid the foundation of those privileges, which we now enjoy; us, and our happiness, was the object of their hazardous and painful labours. The spirit of the present age, indeed, seems to hold forth an agreeable presage, that posterity will not consider us as careless or unjust stewards; but that the fabric of public freedom will not only be delivered unimpaired, but essentially improved and strengthened by us, to succeeding generations.

Art. 31. *The Utility and Importance of Human Learning stated,* in a Sermon preached in the Parish Church of Ashford, in Kent. On Wednesday, August 14, 1782, at the Anniversary Meeting of the Gentlemen educated at that School. By Fran. Whitfield, Vicar of Godmersham, in the same County, 4to. J. Johnson.

Mr. Whitfield, in this Sermon, gives a short sketch of the common arguments employed to prove that the cultivation of science is advantageous to society, and to the interests of religion. He himself appears to be well-informed. The discourse is suited to the audience, and the purpose of the meeting.

Art. 32. *Compassion to the Poor recommended,* in a Sermon preached at Melton-Mowbray, Leicestershire, on Sunday, 18 December 1782. By Thomas Ford, L. L. D. Vicar. Evans, Mathews. 8vo. 6d. For the Benefit of the Poor of Melton-Mowbray, and its Hamlets.

The intentions of this worthy Pastor are truly benevolent: we hope that they have met with the success they deserve.

MISCELLANIES AND POETRY.

Art. 33. *Twenty Minutes Observations on a better Method of providing for the Poor;* in which it is rendered probable that they may be effectually relieved, in a manner more agreeable to the general Feelings of Mankind, at the same time that Two Millions sterling, or more, may be annually saved to the Nation. By Richard Pew, Fellow of the Royal Society of Medicine, Edinburgh. 8vo. 1s. Bew.

The Author's plan is to establish throughout the kingdom, clubs,

or associations in every parish, similar to those which already exist in several places. The members of which ~~are~~ contribute weekly a certain sum to the common fund; and ~~when prevented from following~~ their several occupations by sickness or old age, or, when other causes render it necessary, to be supported, or to receive aid out of the said fund. This, by some calculations that he has made, ~~so~~ which we must refer our Readers, he says, would diminish the poor rate nearly two-thirds. So that, supposing that tax to be below three millions, it would amount to little more than one million, were his plan to be adopted. This small publication contains only an outline of the Writer's scheme.

Art. 34. *The American Wanderer, through various Parts of Europe, in a Series of Letters to a Lady; by a Virginian.* 8vo. 6s. boards. Robson.

Since the appearance of Sterne's *Sentimental Journey*, we have not read a work of the kind with more pleasure than the present. In the general merit of this work we prefer it to Sterne, but when we cull out the *independent* beauties of both authors, Sterne has the majority, the American Wanderer having great merit upon the whole, but containing no chapter which we can select as eminently beautiful. He has passages here and there which far exceed anything in Sterne, but they are short, and connected with what goes before. In solidity of remark, and forcible appeals to the judgment, he distances Sterne very much. We do not, however, say that good judgment appears in every part of the work; the Author is actuated by one train of tender ideas throughout the whole, and we must think with him to relish many parts of his book. The affliction that preyed on his mind is not an uncommon one, and he will meet with many readers whose tears will do justice to his proper sensibility.

His observations are sometimes conveyed in turgid language, but much oftener strike us with propriety of cloathing. His wit is conspicuous in many parts, and gives a pleasing feature to the whole. When he philosophises he forgets himself, for he appears to be a man whose disposition inclines him to take things as they are, rather than as they should be. His predilection for the French nation, which he imagines to be founded on truth, is, in fact, the effects of his temper, which being inclined to the melancholy, he found a remedy in the vivacity and nothingness of French manners. There are some indelicacies in one or two of the letters, which not a little surprized us, when we reflected that the letters were addressed to a lady. We recommend to the Author to expunge them, if the work should see another edition; they are unnecessary, and have no wit in them. Taking the book "for all in all," it is ingenious, lively, and sensible, and may afford entertainment, if not instruction, to that numerous class of readers, who greedily devour *anecdote* and *en passant* remark.

Art. 35. *The Refuge; or, a Tale of other Times.* By the Author of the Chapter of Accidents. Vol. I. 3s. 8vo. Cadell.

Miss Lee has imitated in this novel some of the French romance writers of the last age. She has taken her chief personages from history.

history. But, more attentive to character than her precursors in this walk, she has, ~~for~~ the most part, made them think, speak, and act, as they probably would have done in the situations in which she has placed them.

The Author marries the Duke of Norfolk privately to Mary Queen of Scots, by whom he has two daughters, who are educated in a sequestered abode, from whence "The Recess," the title of the Novel. Matilda, her heroine, is one of these daughters. The Earl of Leicester, pursued by assassins, takes refuge in the Recess, where he falls in love with, and marries her. To conceal their marriage from the jealous and piercing eyes of Queen Elizabeth, forms the chief interest of a story which will amuse, and may improve the reader. This volume, the only one yet published, finishes in a way that excites curiosity to wish for the sequel.

Art. 36. *A History of the Revolt of Ali Bey against the Ottoman Porte*, including an Account of the Form of Government of Egypt; together with a Description of Grand Cairo, and of several celebrated places in Egypt, Palestine, and Syria: to which are added, a short account of the present State of the Christians who are Subjects to the Turkish Government, and the Journal of a Gentleman who travelled from Aleppo to Bassora. 8vo. L. Davis.

This publication contains some facts which are not uninteresting. It is consequently, of some value. But it cannot be observed of it, that it is put together with art or skill.

Art. 37. *Captain Inglefield's Narrative*, containing the Loss of his Majesty's Ship, the Centaur, of Seventy-four Guns; and the miraculous Preservation of the Pinnace, with the Captain, Master, and Ten of the Crew, in a Traverse of near 300 Leagues on the great Western Ocean; with the Names of the People saved. Published by Authority. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

Scenes of the greatest distress are related in this Narrative, in a style the most simple and natural; and the effect upon the Reader is proportionably strong. The heart of the Writer was alive to the scenes he describes; and he communicates his sensations in their full force. An historian more artful and cultivated, would have told the tale with greater propriety of language, and in a more refined manner; but he would have been far less affecting. The language of the passions and of nature, puts to shame the rules of art, and the foppery of declamation; and the reader who can peruse this short narrative, without being deeply affected almost in every page, must have a more obdurate heart than we wish to be possessed of.

Art. 38. *An Introduction to the Study of Polite Literature*. 8s. bound. Doddsley.

This ingenious little volume, is designed to obviate the inconveniences, which occur from the common method of teaching children to read. The common spelling books generally begin with short familiar words, but they are apt to protract their sentences to too great a length. Hence the pupil acquires a tone, or monotony. This error is guarded against in the present performance. Short, instructive sentences, are cautiously selected, and agreeably arranged;

ed; and there is a judicious gradation observed in the progress of the lessons, from the more easy to the more difficult.

Art. 39. *The Two Mentors: a Modern Story.* By the Author of the Old English Baron. In two volumes. 5s. Dilly.

That dreadful deluge of novel-writing, which threatened some years ago to overwhelm the public with the grossest ribaldry and nonsense, has of late happily abated. Such at that time, indeed, was the general avidity for this deplorable species of reading, that little or no success attended any other mode of literary adventure. We very sincerely deprecate the relapse of a disease so fatal, so contagious, and so virulent, among those who attach themselves to books. May the celebrity of Cecilia have no such consequence. Ye Sylphs who superintend the growing ideas of the female understanding, inspire our young ladies with an early and solid attachment to the virtues, the duties, and the graces of their sex; but guard them, as you wish to render them amiable and endearing, against this *cacæthes Scribendi*, which makes so many fair and charming creatures the melancholy dupes of sentimental jargon.

Were the mechanism of an interesting narrative so happily conducted, as to leave some worthy impression on the mind, such a mode of addressing the rising generation might be adopted with the greatest propriety, as it would then prove subservient to the best of purposes. But, as it has been generally managed, it does the most palpable and lasting mischief to the morals and attachments of youth. In these vehicles of profligacy and impiety, vice but too often flounces in all the gaiety of sprightliness and wit: while virtue is as constantly exhibited in the dullest, the most awkward, and disgusting situations. Every spark of vivacity in the whole compass of five or six tedious volumes, is sometimes lent in all its lustre to heighten and decorate forsooth, the chimerical consequence of some rascally and flagitious character: and the least degree of sentiment or worth which happens to creep in as it were by accident, is so wretchedly associated as to appear totally shocking. Besides, the story is often so pitifully told, the style so flimsy, and the remarks so trite and impertinent, and every thing so full of levity and insipidity, that the mere perusal of so much frippery and fantastic nonsense, must unavoidably enervate the mind.

The fair Authoress of the *Two Mentors* does not seem calculated to produce the reformation so much wanted in this mode of composition. We give her all possible credit for those lessons of virtue and delicacy which she wishes to inculcate. No age was ever in circumstances more favourable to every species of luxury and dissoluteness. But whatever the intentions of this Writer are, her pen is destitute of energy: Dry in her narrations; formal in her occasional speculations; careless in her language; and no where interesting in her characters or anecdotes. She holds up, however, to all the scribbling sisterhood, a striking example of abortive vanity! She tires the old without pleasing the young, and while the languid and giddy regard her affectation of simplicity without concern, the grave and discerning treat her production as an instance of talents misapplied, and time mispent.

Art.

Art. 40. *Narrative of a Shipwreck on the Island of Cape Breton, in a Voyage from Quebec, 1780.* By S. W. Prenties, Ensign of the 94th Regiment of Foot. London, Egerton.

This little volume gave us the same pleasure in reading which we felt from a perusal of Robinson Crusoe's Travels in our youthful days. The adventures of Ensign Prenties exceed all prospect of belief, and have much more of the marvellous in them than is to be found in any modern novel for twenty years past, which, we think, is saying a great deal. The hardships Mr. Prenties and his crew underwent, were the most trying that possibly could be to the strength or spirit of a man. It is impossible to give any extract from the work, but as it is short, we cannot avoid recommending it to the attention of all ranks of readers. The young will find in it sufficient matter to excite surprize and give pleasure, and philosophers may survey the effects and operation of the most dreadful calamities on different minds. The ingenuity of Mr. Prenties, to whom, by the carelessness and brutality of the captain, the command of the whole was transferred, can never be sufficiently applauded. His manner of address to the men when in the agonies of despair and famine, and that constancy and presence of mind which animated and supported him, seem to speak him endued with a more than ordinary share of fortitude and activity. His style is pleasing, and unobtrusively pathetic; and there are many observations in the course of the narration which merit notice.

Art. 41. *A Short Address to the Public upon a Subject of the utmost importance to the future Safety and Welfare of the British Dominions.* By Thomas Sheridan, A. M. Doddsley. 6d.

This pamphlet cannot be considered as an object of criticism. It is properly speaking, an advertisement concerning Mr. Sheridan's lectures. As to the contents, Mr. Sheridan is of opinion, that the source of all our national calamities is neglected education. He talks concerning a plan for improving education, but as that plan is not contained in the pamphlet, we are left to suppose that it is to be found in his lectures, or that it will be communicated in some subsequent work. We hope it will prove an effectual one, as there is no man so blind as not to see the expediency of a good education. The difficulty lies in the method, which too often is worse than the matter.

Art. 42. *The Congress of Cythra; or, the Judgment of Love.* Translated from the Italian of Count Algarotti. 2s. 6d. sewed, Kearsley.

We can say but little of this book; it is one of those which may be read once, but which we have no inclination to take up a second time. As a description of the manners of France, England, and Italy in matters of love and gallantry, which the translator maintains it to be, it is incomplete. There are many dangerous and exceptionable passages in it, which sink the fair sex to the low rank of whimsical puppets, which we are to catnap and sport with at pleasure. The latter part, if a translation, falls greatly short of the former. Upon the whole, we cannot recommend this work, as its general tendency is to confirm the degrading opinion which

fashion-

fashionable gentlemen entertain concerning the understanding and merits of the fair sex.

Art. 43. *Essays and Letters on the most Important and Interesting Subjects.* 2 vols. small 8vo. 6s. sewed. J. Bew.

Before (says our Author,) I send from my closet those thoughts and opinions which have been the subjects of my leisure hours there; I think it necessary to apprise those who may take the trouble to read them, that they will find nothing new; as I conceive, that all that can be said on history, morality, religion, physics, and metaphysics, has been said by the learned and unlearned long ago. I fear, as this is acknowledged, I shall find it needful to make an apology for writing at all. This task, indeed, is a hard one: suffice it to say, that, while pens, ink, and paper, remain in the world, there will be scribblers, as well as wise men, who will make use of them. Those who have felt the pleasure of committing their thoughts to paper, will I am persuaded, pardon me. Those who have not, can have no idea of the sensation: I must therefore crave their candour to believe the truth of what I set forth in my preface; and, add to it, that scribbling is nearly the only thing in which I find amusement; and this, I trust, will draw their forgiveness. I assure all who may look on these pages, that, though I enter the world veiled, I tremble every step I take. I rely on this, that truth has ever guided my pen; I can at least affirm, sincerity has.

Whatever wants an apology in these essays, must arise from want of knowledge, or want of manner. That they will be very deficient in both, I readily believe; but I think I do not deceive myself, when I say, I never meant to deceive others. I shall meet perhaps, with few friends; but those few must be sincere, because unknown. I shall meet, no doubt, with many enemies, who will condemn without mercy. The former must console me for the latter; though I will endeavour, while I feel their wrath, to profit by their censure.

An address, in which there is so much modesty and candour, would disarm the severest critic, even were there room for severity, which is by no means the case. The Author of the present essays &c. possesses a considerable share of good sense, and his works tend to promote the interests of virtue and religion. We meet with no gross improprieties, either in the sentiments or the language, but marks of genius we can no where discern: every thing flows on, in the equable tenor of mediocrity.

The first volume consists of essays, and the 2d of letters and fragments. We find little stories interspersed; and the manner of the whole leads us to conjecture, that the Author has formerly had some thoughts of a publication in imitation of the Spectator, and the numerous works of a similar nature that have since appeared. If he ever had such intentions, he has acted right in abandoning them, as he wants that ease and playfulness of fancy which give a consequence and interest to the common occurrences of life, and without which such publications will never succeed.

Art. 44. *Memoirs of the Anglesea Militia, including the Principles of the Militia Laws.* Illustrated by several Cases and Decisions, with Observations on the Evidence against William Peacocke,

cocke, late Lieutenant Colonel, sentenced to be cashiered, by a Court Martial, held at Portsmouth, August 6, 1782. Interpersed with many extraordinary Anecdotes, neither Civil nor Military. Dedicated to General Conway, and addressed to the House of Commons, 4to. 2s. 6d. J. Mathews.

'THE subsequent publication' says the Author, 'is intended as a plain relation of a variety of occurrences in the Anglesea militia, which have brought in question several new cases and decisions of importance on the militia laws. The public measures adopted, relating to this corps, gave birth to much private animosity and resentment; consequences resulted, the subject of public and private conversation, but imperfectly or only partially understood. To set the facts and consequences resulting from them, in a clear and proper point of view, is the object of this publication.'

It appears from this pamphlet, that the lieutenant of the county, in the last stage of life, when the infirmities of old age had impaired his understanding, had been prevailed upon, contrary to the letter and spirit of the militia laws, to add four Irish companies, under Irish officers, to the Anglesea militia; and to give the command of the whole to a native of that country, not possessed of a legal qualification. That the Court of King's Bench granted a mandamus against Sir Nicholas Bayley, the lieutenant of the county, for not putting the militia laws in execution. That, in consequence of this, the commissions of the officers, found not duly qualified, were declared vacant in the Gazette, and yet that they were permitted to act, and receive pay, till the corps was disembodied at the peace. It appears too that the Irish commandant was condemned by a court martial, and sentenced to be cashiered for peculation, and other malpractices; but pardoned by the king. The private transactions of Captain Herbert Jones, commandant of the Anglesea militia, on the legal establishment, with Mr. Peacocke, the Irish lieutenant colonel, are interspersed; the tenour and result of which do not place the character of the latter in the brightest point of view. We cannot enter more particularly into these matters. The whole affair seems to have been a job, winked at, for what purposes we know not, by those in power. The pamphlet is well written, and the dedication to General Conway most pointedly severe.

Art. 45. *The General Exchanger*: comprehending the principal direct and cross Exchanges of Europe, with Tables and Rules, shewing the value of any Sum of Money at the different Rates; describing the Monies of most Countries; and in what Manner their Books and Accompts are kept, and Bills are drawn. In which are included, the intermediate Exchanges, being that Part of the Cross or foreign Exchanges with one another, that more immediately concerns Great Britain and Ireland; together with a few Remarks on the Exchanges of America, Asia, and Africa. And an extensive Table of Usances, and of Days of Grace. To which is prefixed a Summary of the Law, Customs, and Usages in Bills of Exchange, Promissory and Bankers Notes. By Robert Egan. Dublin. 4to. 12s. boards. Graisberry.

This copious title page sufficiently explains the design of the volume

volume to which it is prefixed; the tables of exchange seem the result of labour and accuracy; and appear well calculated to promote the ease and convenience of the merchant.

Art. 46. *Elements of Geometry*; in which all the material Propositions in the first Six, Eleventh, and Twelfth Books of Euclid, are demonstrated with conciseness and perspicuity. By William Scott. 2s. sewed. 12mo. Elliot, Edinburgh. Robinson, London.

The Elements of Euclid have already appeared in a variety of forms through the medium of translation. The habit in which Mr. Simson has clothed them, is generally believed to have rendered them less austere, and more accessible to the diffident. Mr. Scott however, presumes they may yet be made more easy and agreeable. He has comprehended all the propositions, which he conceives to be necessary, in nine divisions, viz. 1. Of triangles; 2. Of parallelograms; 3. Of circles; 4th. Of proportion; 5th. Of proportion in plane surfaces; 6th. Of the section of planes; 7th. Of solids; 8th. Problems respecting lines; 9th. Problems respecting surfaces. His demonstrations are concise and elegant; but we fear their brevity will render them difficult to beginners. His diminishing the number of the *propositions* by increasing that of the *corollaries*, we apprehend, though it may be pleasing to the adept, will be perplexing to the novice.

Art. 47. *Ippopaidia*, a Poem. 1s. 4to. Cruttwell, Bath. Doddsley and Dilly.

‘Attend, ye Sylvan Deities that love
To range the rural grove, but chief thou fair
And chaste DIANA with thy silver bow
Attend, and teach my willing verse to sing
(For sure the theme must please) the various breed
Of Horses, and their praise not ill deserv’d.

Happy the man whose wide-extended fields
Afford fit pasture for the neighing steed!
Oft shall he feel his bosom beat for fame
As down the sloping hill and meadow green,
He views him with the lightning’s rapid force
In rival speed descend, and oft shall raise
His neighbour’s envy. Different is the kind
And different is the horses’ use: to some
Laborious strength is given, to others speed.
But chief I wish to celebrate the horse
Of blood, for blood it is alone can give
Beauty, and force, and honour’s sacred fire.’

So singeth the Author of *Ippopaidia*. He may likewise tell us, that Pindar was, in some measure, of his opinion. Yet, in spite of such authority, we could wish our British youth to build their fame on a more solid foundation than either the *speed* or *bottom* (we hope these are sterling sporting expressions) of a horse. Not content with telling us that, the horse he “wishes” to “celebrate” bestows “fame” on the owner, he likewise informs us, that his innate qualities give “honour’s sacred fire” to the horse himself. How this

this should come to pass we know not, but attribute our ignorance to not being initiated into the arcana of the turf. His exclaiming with exultation, that "Millions are lavish'd on the glorious sport" of horse-racing, does not much prejudice us in favour of his understanding, nor does his saying, that "the Prelate" often meets "the Peer" and "monied Squire" at Newmarket, for the purpose of betting, give us a high opinion of his veracity. As to the composition of this little Poem, it is above mediocrity. But surely the Author has been guilty of the most glaring impropriety, by inviting the chaste Diana to behold, his "horse of blood stamp an image of himself." When he describes the houyhnhamine amours, he goes into a minuteness of detail, accompanied by such a pruriency of expression as would suit the High-priest of the Temple of Hymen. It is well for his heroes and heroines that they cannot read.

Art. 48. *The Times*. A Satire. To the King; and dedicated to the Emperor of Germany. By T. Brown, Esq. 4to. 1811. T. Edgerton.

Grown gray in office, the number of publications, which have, of course, come under our investigation are not a few; yet we can boldly affirm, that we never met with any thing which could vie in absurdity and incomprehensibility with the performance now before us. Our duty to the public (and nothing else could) has compelled us to read it, that we might give some account of its contents. This we have attempted to do, but, after all our efforts, we are forced to abandon it as a *non-descript*, which far exceeds all our analytical powers. Let it then speak for itself.

' You learned christians of the nation,
You pious birds of revelation,
Say, why so many contradict'ons, tricks,
Between your religion, and politics?
Law is still law even to pigs and dogs,
By system you honest, by system rogues,
"Is not duty duty? Tell me Adder,
"Or fearest nothing, but the ladder?
"Hell's not a bugbear, but to be brief:
"Self-int'rest's all; *Liberty and roast beef.*"

The whole of the work is of the same complexion. We have our suspicions that T. Brown, Esq; either is, or ought to be an inhabitant of Moorfields.

Art. 49. *The Bawd: A Poem*. Containing all the various Practices those diabolical Characters make use of to decoy innocent Beauties into their Snares, with their Behaviour to them, and the Means they are made to employ to entertain their numerous Gallants, &c. By a distinguished Worshipper in the Temple of Venus. Sold at the Pamphlet Shops, 4to, 1s.

A distinguished Worshipper in the Temple of Venus! No, thou art a St. Giles's Night-man, and hast poured thy filth upon the public. This *authorling*, under the semblance of a reformer, would do harm if he could; but after all his efforts to enflame the passions, he produces no emotions save those of contempt and disgust.

For

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

The papers which follow are of a public nature and have a natural connection with a Literary Journal. They refer to a dispute which has happened between the Society of the Scottish Antiquaries on the one hand, and Dr. Robertson, the celebrated Historian, with his friends on the other. Soon after the institution of the Antiquarian Society of Scotland, Dr. Robertson was admitted to the station of one of its honorary members. But notwithstanding this, when they applied to the Crown for a charter of incorporation he opposed the measure. The steps in this singular dispute are displayed in the subjoined Letters and Memorials; and they deserve to be laid before the Public.

A LETTER TO ***

Member of the Society of the Antiquaries at Edinburgh.

S I R,

MUSEUM, 15 April 1783.

THE inclosed caveats and answer will show you the nature and springs of the illiberal opposition to your charter. You will likewise perceive that the affair originated solely from the Principal of the University of Edinburgh, and one or two of his colleagues. They are apprehensive, it would appear, lest the Antiquarian Society should be more useful to the nation than the University are willing to permit. They perhaps regret that we should, in a period so very short, have recovered a greater number of antient records and papers, which tend to illustrate the history and antiquities of Scotland, than was ever done by any other body of men. They seem to be ashamed that the Society has already been entrusted with a more valuable collection of natural objects, than the University have allowed to perish since the days of James VI. the founder of their incorporation. Do they really wish to monopolize the literature and the genius of the nation? As individuals, we respect the several members of the University: But it is not uncommon in the history of human affairs, that honourable, and even learned individuals, when associated into bodies who are accustomed to look forward to a common interest, often act a part entirely inconsistent with that candour and generosity of sentiment, which they both feel and exhibit in the common intercourse of the world.

The effects produced by this opposition, instead of making the Members of the Society remiss in their attention to its interests, have, if possible, strengthened their bond of union, and given to their association a firmness and stability which must repel every attack, from whatever quarter it shall come. Notwithstanding the arts which have been used, and the insinuations which have been thrown out, the generosity and confidence of the public have not abated. On the contrary, they daily increase, as will appear from the publication of the next catalogue of our effects: And the public, as well as our distant members, may be assured, that the Society will never suffer any part of their property to perish, or to be wrested from them.

The Royal Society, projected by the University, may or may not acquire an existence. But the Antiquarian Society will never injure their sense of honour, by stating themselves in opposition to the intentions of any literary scheme. They cannot permit themselves to believe that the Lord Advocate of Scotland, whose private as well as public conduct has always been candid and honourable, will ever be induced, by the arguments contained in the caveats, to give an unfavourable report to his Majesty concerning our charter.

With regard to the present state of the Society, you will please be informed, that their property, at a low valuation, amounts to above L. 2500 Sterling, and that their debts exceed not L. 600. The propriety of a speedy extinction of this sum, which must be very inconsiderable to no less than three hundred members, many of whom are as remarkable for their opulence and high rank, as for their generosity and love of letters, requires not to be enforced by any extensive process of argumentation. Members, therefore, of every denomination, are requested, according to their abilities and inclination, to promote the accomplishment of this salutary purpose.

Donations are received at London by Sir Robert Harris, Baronet, and Co. Messrs Coutts and Co. Messrs Drummond and Co. and by Messrs Bertram, Baillie, and Co. bankers;—at Edinburgh by Sir William Forbes, Baronet, and Co. and Messrs Bertram, Gardner, and Co. bankers;—at Dublin by Dr. Cleghorn, senior;—at Glasgow by Mr. Gilbert Hamilton merchant;—at Aberdeen by Mr. John Ewen merchant;—and at Inverness by Mr. George Bean writer.

We shall conclude, Sir, with entreating that you will transmit to the Secretary, any essays, ancient papers, natural objects, or other literary communications you may be possessed of, or have it in your power to acquire.

Signed by order of the Society,

BUCHAN, President.

JAMES CUMMYNG, Sec.

To the KING's Most Excellent MAJESTY,
The Humble PETITION of the
SOCIETY of the ANTIQUARIES of SCOTLAND.

SHEWETH,

THAT, in the year 1780, your petitioners, consisting of a number of the Noblemen and Gentlemen of this part of your Majesty's united kingdom, formed themselves into a society for investigating antiquities, as well as natural and civil history in general, with a view to the improvement of the minds of mankind, and to promote a taste for natural and useful knowledge; and the success of their endeavours has already far exceeded their most sanguine expectations.

That many men, of the first distinction for rank and learning, not only in the British dominions, but in other kingdoms, have, by ingenious

genious dissertations, and valuable donations, contributed toward the prosperity of the Society.

That, beside donations of relics of antiquity, and of natural productions, several Noblemen and Gentlemen have contributed liberally in money to enable the Society to carry their laudable views into execution.

That your Majesty's petitioners have purchased a house in the city of Edinburgh, for containing their books, papers, and other effects; but, not having a *nomen juris*, their rights to that property, to the effects at present in their possession, or to what they shall afterwards acquire, cannot be legally established, unless your Majesty is graciously pleased to grant them a Royal Charter.

Your Majesty's uniform patronage of the fine arts, and of useful literature, encourages them to hope, that you will extend such patronage to your petitioners, which will render the utility of their plan more diffusive, and effectually secure the heritable and moveable property they already possess, or may acquire.

Your petitioners, therefore, most humbly pray, that your Majesty will be graciously pleased to grant your Royal Letters Patent, under the Seal appointed by the Treaty of Union to be kept in Scotland, in place of the Great Seal formerly used, constituting and erecting the present Members of the said Society, and all those who shall afterwards be admitted Members, into one body politic and corporate, or legal incorporation, under the title and name of THE SOCIETY OF THE ANTIQUARIES OF SCOTLAND; and as such, and by such title and name, to have a perpetual endurance and succession, and to be able and capable to sue, plead, defend, and answer, and to be sued, impleaded, defended, and answered, in all or any of your Majesty's courts of judicature, with all other necessary clauses.

And your petitioners shall ever pray,

Signed in presence, and by appointment of a General Meeting of the said Society, this twenty-first day of May, in the year One thousand seven hundred and eighty-two.

(Signed)

BUCHAN, PRESES.

JAMES CUMMYNG, SEC.

COPY Reference to the LORD-ADVOCATE, written on the margin of the above petition.

Whitehall, 26th September 1782.

His Majesty is pleased to refer this petition to the Right Honourable the Lord Advocate of Scotland, to consider thereof, and report his opinion, what may be properly done therein, whereupon his Majesty will declare his further pleasure.

(Signed)

T. TOWNSHEND.

M E M O R I A L for the
PRINCIPAL and PROFESSORS of the
UNIVERSITY of EDINBURGH.

THE Society of Scottish Antiquaries instituted here, in the year 1780, has two different objects, the antiquities of this country, and its natural history: *In order* to prosecute the study of these, they have *opened a Museum* for the reception of records, charters, and other monuments, tending to illustrate the history and antiquities of Scotland; and also for *collecting* the various objects of natural history. They have lately applied for a charter from the Crown, *in order* to give them the permanency and privileges of a body corporate.

The *Senatus Academicus*, though sensible of the GOOD INTENTION with which the Society of Antiquaries was instituted; and though they entertain an *high respect* for many of its members, are fully *persuaded* that a LITERARY SOCIETY *may* be formed on a plan more *favourable* to the progress of science and literature in Scotland, more *suited* to the state of the country, and more *consistent* with the INTEREST of the *University*, and *which* they have good reason to believe *will* meet with the approbation of many respectable members of the Antiquarian Society. In countries of great extent, and where knowledge is much diffused, a considerable variety of literary societies may be established with advantage, and each pursue its separate object with ardour and success: But *narrow* countries do not admit of such a subdivision. There the interest of science and literature is more effectually promoted by one general society, which has for its object the various departments of *philosophy*, *erudition*, and *taste*. The *reasons* of this difference in *management* are *obvious*, and the *practice* and *experience* of Europe, during a hundred years, prove that *they* are well founded. Upon the first establishment of literary societies in the last century, France was in a condition to form three numerous and distinct ones, the Academie des Sciences, the Academie des Inscriptions et des Belles Lettres, and the Academie Française.

In England, two literary societies are established, the Royal Society, and the Society of Antiquaries. But, in the other kingdoms of Europe, it has been judged more *expedient* to institute only *one* literary society, to which the cultivation of all the different branches of *science*, *erudition*, and *taste*, is committed. This is the constitution of the Academies of Berlin, Gottingen, ST. PETERSBURGH, &c. Scotland *ought not* to form its literary plans upon the model of the *more extensive* kingdoms in Europe, but in imitation of these which are more *circumscribed*. Every person acquainted with the state of science and literature among us, must allow that *one* society is fully sufficient for the *reception* of *all* who are entitled to be members of *it*.

If it would be improper to multiply literary societies in a *narrow* country, the impropriety of multiplying separate *public collections*, either in the line of *antiquities* or of *natural history*, is still more *evident*. Scotland may furnish *one good collection* in *each* of these departments.

partments. The LIBRARY of the FACULTY of ADVOCATES has been, during a century, the repository of *every thing* that tends to illustrate the history, the antiquities, and the laws of this country. The *collection* is very considerable, though still far from being complete. By ITS situation, IT is easily accessible to the *courts of justice*, and to the *practitioners* at the bar. It is humbly submitted, whether an attempt to form a new and RIVAL collection, be a measure prudent, expedient, and of advantage to the public.

The MUSÆUM of the University of Edinburgh contains those objects of *natural history* which are exhibited by the PROFESSOR of that branch of science to his *students*, and are illustrated by him in the course of his lectures. This professorship was instituted and endowed by his present Majesty, and will be of great utility in perfecting the plan of education in this University. It appears to the *Senatus Academicus*, that the establishment of another PUBLIC MUSÆUM would not only intercept the communication of many specimens and objects which would otherwise have been deposited in the MUSÆUM of the University; but may induce and enable the Society of Antiquaries to institute a *lectureship* of *natural history*, in opposition to the PROFESSORSHIP in the UNIVERSITY. This there is greater reason to apprehend, as a motion was made in that Society, soon after its institution, to appoint one of their own number a lecturer in *natural history*; and, though the measure was over-ruled at that time, by the exertion of gentlemen friendly to the University; yet such a disposition appears in other members of that Society, that IT may again be resumed.

It is therefore proposed, THAT, instead of granting a charter to the Scots Antiquaries, as a separate Society, THAT a society shall be established by charter upon a more extensive plan, which may be denominated, "The Royal Society of Scotland," and shall have for its object all the various departments of *science, erudition, and Belles Lettres*.

THAT a certain number of persons, respectable for their rank, their stations, or their knowledge, shall be named by the ROYAL CHARTER with powers to choose the original members of the Society, and to frame regulations for conducting their inquiries and proceedings, and for their future elections of members.

THAT whatever collection of antiquities, records, MSS. &c. shall be acquired by this Royal Society, shall be deposited in the LIBRARY of the FACULTY of ADVOCATES, and all objects of *natural history* acquired by IT, shall be deposited in the MUSÆUM of the University of Edinburgh; so as BOTH may be most accessible to the members of the Society, to the public, and OF most general utility.

Signed in name and by appointment of the *Senatus Academicus*.

(Signed) WILLIAM ROBERTSON, Principal.

TO THE RIGHT HONOURABLE

The LORD ADVOCATE of SCOTLAND,
MEMORIAL of the PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY of Edinburgh,

AN association was long ago formed in this city, for promoting natural knowledge, and consisted of several persons of this country,

distinguished for their learning and abilities, and foreigners of the *greatest eminence*. This Society is sufficiently *known* over all Europe, by the name of the *Philosophical Society of Edinburgh*; and its reputation so well established by means of its publications under the title of *Philosophical and Literary Essays*, that persons of the *greatest eminence* in the republic of letters, think it an *honour* to be members, and are *careful* to publish *their title* in the front of *their works*.

The Society flatter themselves, that your Lordship will judge their institution not unworthy of the protection of a government distinguished by its encouragement of literary exertions; and relying on the zeal with which your Lordship promotes every measure conducive to the honour and interests of this country, they had resolved to request your Lordship's patronage to an application for a *Royal Charter* to erect them into a body corporate; but they are informed that the UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH have transmitted to your Lordship a *memorial*, containing a *proposal* for establishing, by Royal Charter, a Society in Edinburgh, on the model of those in *St. Petersburg*, and Berlin, for the more general purpose of cultivating every branch of *science, erudition, and taste*. The philosophical Society are sensible of the *superior* advantages of such an establishment; and, being guided by no *partial views*, and *very willing* to make a *part* of so useful a body, *hoping* by this means to reap the advantages of a more general *communication* of knowledge than their present institution can *promise*.

Wishing therefore to join their labours in a *general LITERARY EFFORT*, the Philosophical Society humbly presume to recommend themselves to your Lordship's patronage, in full confidence, that, if the *proposed* general *institution* shall be honoured with your Lordship's approbation and support, the *interests* and *purposes* of their association will meet with that attention to which their present share of public estimation seems to give them an equitable claim.

(Signed) WILLIAM CULLEN, V.P.

Edinburgh, Dec. 14, 1782.

COPY LETTER from some of the Curators of the Advocates Library.

MY LORD,

Being informed that the Society of Antiquaries here have applied to His Majesty for a Royal Charter, and IT *having been suggested* that this institution may prove *HURTFUL* to the library of the Faculty of Advocates, of which WE are the *present CURATORS*, we have thought it our duty to take the matter under consideration.

For a century past, the Advocates Library has been the *general repository* of the ancient manuscripts and monuments *illustrating* the history and antiquities of Scotland, WHERE *they may* be considered as under the immediate protection of the College of Justice, of which our Society forms a principal branch, and WHERE *they are* at all times *easily accessible* to the *PRACTITIONERS* of the LAW, as well as to any *others* that may have occasion to inspect them. To form a *separate* and *rival repository*, which is *intended* by the present Antiquarian

quarian Society, is not only *unnecessary* but *ineexpedient*, as *one* effect of it must be to divide, and put under different management, valuable manuscripts which ought to be *together*, and in *one* and the *same* collection.

These CONSIDERATIONS appear to US of *great weight*! and we are *also* informed, that a *plan* has been *proposed* for establishing a *Royal Society*, upon a more *enlarged* FOOTING, and *which*, WHILE it will promote inquiries regarding our history and antiquities, may, at the same time, be so conducted, as not to *interfere*, in any degree, with the ADVOCATES LIBRARY. In *these circumstances*, we apprehend that the *whole business* is of such consequence to the FACULTY of ADVOCATES, and to the *public*, as to make it proper, at *least* to apply for a *delay* in granting any Royal Charter to the Society of Antiquaries, till the *matter* shall be fully and deliberately *considered*. WE, therefore, think it OUR *duty* to request your Lordship that you will be *so good* as to use your interest for *this purpose*. And we have the honour to be,

My LORD,

Your Lordship's most obedient servants,

(Signed)

Illy Campbell.

Robert Blair.

Alex. Abercromby.

Alex. Tytler.

Edinburgh, December 3, 1782.

Lord Advocate.

TO THE RIGHT HONOURABLE

The LORD ADVOCATE of SCOTLAND.

MEMORIAL for the

SOCIETY of SCOTTISH ANTIQUARIES.

THE Society of the ANTIQUARIES OF SCOTLAND was instituted in the year 1780. The Noblemen and Gentlemen who originally formed this association, as well as every person who loved his country, had long observed, with regret, that though Scotland gives birth to many learned and ingenious men, their pursuits in various departments of literature were circumscribed and retarded, by not possessing some advantages enjoyed by other polished nations. In these nations, the culture of every branch of science has been greatly promoted by academies or literary societies, who have flourished under the auspices and patronage of their respective sovereigns: But, till the institution of the Antiquarian Society, Scotland had no public bodies associated for the encouragement either of arts or of sciences. The researches of the Antiquary and Historian were not assisted by any public repository; and the Naturalist had no Museum to which he could resort for instruction or amusement.

To supply these two great national defects, the Antiquarian Society of Scotland was established. The laudable intention of this association was no sooner known to the public, than many Noble-

men, gentlemen of fortune, and men distinguished for their learning and abilities, requested to be admitted members. Ingenious dissertations, and valuable donations of reliques of antiquity, and of natural productions, have been presented to the Society by men of the first distinction for rank and learning. Liberal contributions in money have also been received by the Society to enable them to promote the purposes of their institution. Such, indeed, has been the ardour of all ranks in this country to encourage an institution from which so many national advantages were to be derived, that, two years after its formation, the Society was in possession of considerable property.

This valuable property was received from a generous Public; and to that Public the Members of the Society consider themselves as responsible for the perpetual preservation of the numerous donations with which they have been entrusted. With this view they were induced to apply to his Majesty for a Royal charter, to erect the Society into a body politic and corporate.

THE views and intentions of the Society have been so universally applauded, ever since its commencement, that no idea of opposition could possibly be entertained from any individual, and far less from any public body. The Society, however, find they have been mistaken. Some months ago they discovered, with astonishment, that the Rev. Dr. Robertson, Principal of the University of Edinburgh, and an honorary Member of the Society of the Antiquaries of Scotland, with some of the Professors, had privately, and without any authority from the University, given a caveat to your Lordship against the Society's obtaining a charter. This private caveat, some months afterwards, received the approbation of a majority of the University, at a second meeting of the *Senatus Academicus*, called upon that subject. The same caveat has been adopted by the Philosophical Society of Edinburgh, and by the Curators of the Advocates Library. These caveats have the appearance of being individually three; but it cannot escape your Lordship's penetration, that they are really one.

THE Society esteem themselves much indebted to your Lordship for favouring them with copies of these caveats. After perusing them with attention, though the facts and arguments contained in them appear so extremely frivolous that a serious answer might be deemed unnecessary, yet a few animadversions upon the spirit and tendency of these papers shall be submitted to your Lordship's consideration.

THE Memorial for the University of Edinburgh seems to contain two arguments, which, when explicated by your Lordship, it is humbly thought must appear in a very peculiar light.

Argument I. "THE *Senatus Academicus* are fully persuaded, that
 " a Literary Society may be formed on a plan more favourable to the
 " progress of science and literature in Scotland; more suited to the
 " state of the country, and more consistent with the interest of the
 " University." These positions the *Senatus Academicus* attempt to support by the following argument: " In countries of great extent,
 " and where knowledge is much diffused, a considerable variety of literary societies may be established with advantage, and each pursue
 " sue

“ sue its separate object with ardour and success; but narrow coun-
 “ tries do not admit of such subdivision. There the interest of
 “ science and literature is more effectually promoted by one general
 “ society, which has for its object the various departments of *Phil-
 “ sophy, Erudition, and Taste*. The *reasons* of this difference in *ma-
 “ nagement* are *obvious*; and the *practice* and *experience* of Europe,
 “ during a hundred years, prove that *they* are well founded. Upon
 “ the first establishment of literary societies in the last century,
 “ France was in a condition to form *three* numerous and distinct
 “ *ones*: the Academie des Sciences; the Academie des Inscriptions
 “ et des Belles Lettres; and the Academie Françoise.”

“ In England, *two* literary Societies are established, the Royal
 “ Society, and the Society of Antiquaries. But, in the other king-
 “ doms of Europe, it has been judged more *expedient* to institute on-
 “ ly *one* literary society, to which the cultivation of all the differ-
 “ ent branches of *science, erudition, and taste*, is committed. This
 “ is the constitution of the Academies of Berlin, Gottingen, St Pe-
 “ tersburgh, &c.” Your Lordship will attend to the conclusion of
 this paragraph: “ Scotland *ought not* to form its literary plans
 “ upon the model of the *more extensive* kingdoms in Europe, but in
 “ imitation of these which are more *circumscribed*. Every person,
 “ acquainted with the state of science and literature among *us*, must
 “ allow that *one* society is fully sufficient for the *reception* of *all* who
 “ are entitled to be members of it.”

THIS argument, derived solely from a supposed narrowness of country, as well as the facts employed for its support, seem to be extremely *fallacious*. Scotland cannot admit of more than one literary society, and yet it supports with *dignity* four flourishing Universities! It is not the narrowness of the country, but the want of liberality and public spirit, and the little jealousies originating from *party views*, and *personal antipathies*, which have unfortunately prevented this country from establishing literary societies like those of Italy, France, England, and many other nations of Europe. It is not meant to apply this remark to the University of Edinburgh any farther than is apparent from their memorial. They are apprehensive that the Antiquarian Society of Scotland may be injurious to *the interest* of the University. This Society can assure your Lordship, that they never entertained an idea which could be *hostile* to that learned body, who merit every encouragement; and it is not with held by the Public.

WITH regard to facts, the University seem to have overlooked some material circumstances. They insinuate, that in France there are only *three* literary societies established by Royal charters, and that England possesses no more than *two*. If, however, they had consulted a celebrated author upon this subject, they would have discovered, that in France there are at least *twenty-three* literary societies established by Royal charters; and that in London alone there are no fewer than *ten*. In France, several of these societies are limited to the same individual subjects, which shows, that the French nation have no apprehensions of any bad consequences resulting from numerous institutions of that kind. The French government either foresaw, or learned from experience, that the progress

gress of literature would be most successfully accelerated and diffused by the emulous exertion of different societies, dispersed through the various provinces of the kingdom. With such an illustrious example before their eyes, it is surprising that the University should have used an argument so subversive of the purpose for which it is employed. Besides, the University ought to know, that many of the foreign academies, who embrace a variety of sciences, are divided into separate bodies. That of Berlin consists of four bodies: The first comprehends Physics, Medicine, and Chymistry; the second, Mathematics, Astronomy, and Mechanics; the third, the German Language, and the History of the Country; and the fourth, Oriental Learning. These bodies, though they bear not different names, are really four distinct societies. The Imperial Academy of St. Petersburg is nearly in the same situation; with this addition, that Professors read regular lectures on the different branches of science. How far an institution of this kind would meet with the approbation of the University of Edinburgh, we cannot pretend to determine.

THE *second* argument used by the University is only an extension of the first. But, as it contains new facts, it was thought more proper to consider it separately.

Argument II. "If it would be improper to multiply literary societies in a narrow country, the impropriety of multiplying separate public collections, either in the line of antiquities or of natural history, is still more evident. Scotland may furnish one good collection in each of these departments. The library of the Faculty of Advocates has been, during a century, the repository of every thing that tends to illustrate the History, the Antiquities, and the Laws of this country. The collection is very considerable, though still far from being complete. By its situation, it is easily accessible to the courts of justice, and to the practitioners at the bar. It is humbly submitted, whether an attempt to form a new and rival collection be a measure prudent, expedient, and of advantage to the public."—"The Museum of the University of Edinburgh contains those objects of natural history which are exhibited by the Professor of that branch of science to his students, and are illustrated by him in the course of his lectures. It appears to the Senatus Academicus, that the establishment of another public Museum would not only intercept the communication of many specimens and objects which would have otherwise been deposited in the Museum of the University, but may induce and enable the Society of Antiquaries to institute a lectureship of Natural History, in opposition to the Professorship in the University. This there is greater reason to apprehend, as a motion was made in that Society, soon after its institution, to appoint one of their own number a Lecturer in Natural History; and though the measure was over-ruled at that time by the exertion of gentlemen friendly to the University, yet such a disposition appears in other members of that Society, that it may again be resumed."

THIS paragraph is expressive of great fears and apprehensions of rival collections, and of rival lecturers! On the supposition, my
 Lord,

Lord, that all this emulation should be excited, it would be a fortunate event both for the city of Edinburgh and for the nation. It is not impossible that Professors may be admitted into the University, who are either indolent, or whose parts are not remarkably brilliant. In cases of this kind, a rival lecturer may be of the greatest utility to his country. The University, from a recent fact, might be satisfied that all fears of this nature are chimerical. Not many years ago, no branch of medicine was taught without the walls of the College; but, for some time past, every department of that science has been taught by private lecturers. What have been the dreadful consequences? Have the usual numbers of students who attend the University been diminished? No, my Lord. If any considerable change has happened, it has been favourable to the prosperity of the University. Monopoly in literature is equally fatal as it is in commerce: It may enrich a few individuals, but it checks the genius and the trade of nations.

THE fact, with regard to a lecturer in Natural History, is not fully explained in the University's Memorial. About twelve months ago, a member of the Antiquarian Society was appointed Superintendant of their Natural History department. It was likewise proposed that he should have the privilege of lecturing in their hall when he should think proper; but, as the intended lectures were not at that time finished, the gentleman declined that privilege. Your Lordship must likewise be informed, that this lecturer was not to teach *Natural History*. His object was to deliver lectures on the *Philosophy of Natural History*, which is a subject totally different from what a public Professor is obliged to teach. A Professor must instruct his students in the technical and elementary parts of the science; but the private lecturer was to confine himself to general views of the œconomy of nature. Some members of the Antiquarian Society endeavoured to unfold the nature of these lectures; and thought they had satisfied Dr. Walker, that no interference could ever happen. He was told, that the intended lectures might excite a taste for natural knowledge in this country, and, of course, that the number of students who wished to be acquainted with the science at large would be augmented. But it appears, from the University's memorial, that the Doctor's apprehensions have revived. Besides, your Lordship will please to be informed, that the composition of the lectures alluded to was begun in the year 1774, by the advice of the learned and ingenious Lord Kaimes, and that the plan of them received the approbation of Dr. Ramsay, who was then Professor of Natural History in the College of Edinburgh. After this concise detail of facts, can it merit belief that these lectures were ever designed to rival the public Professor? If the lecturer chuses to proceed, no body of men have a right to suppress the fruits of his labour. If his lectures are of any value they will be encouraged; if otherwise, they will meet with neglect. The mighty crime committed by the Antiquaries was to offer one of their own number the use of their hall. Supposing they had been less generous, the expence of hiring a Mason Lodge would have been the only effect of a refusal.

THE Memorial concludes with a proposal, "That, instead of granting a charter to the Scotch Antiquarians, as a separate society

ciety, that a Society shall be established by charter upon a more extensive plan, which may be denominated *The Royal Society of Scotland*, and shall have for its object all the various departments of Science, Erudition, and Belles Lettres.

“THAT whatever collection of antiquities, records, MSS. &c. shall be acquired by this Royal Society, shall be deposited in the Library of the Faculty of Advocates; and all objects of Natural History, acquired by it, shall be deposited in the Museum of the University of Edinburgh, so as both may be most accessible to the members of the Society, to the public, and of most general utility.”

THE Faculty of Advocates, your Lordship knows, is a most respectable body: But, in any other capacity than that of constituting a principal branch of the College of Justice, they are a *private society*. Their books and MSS. are exclusive property. The Faculty have, at all times, been generous to the public; but the public have no claim upon their generosity. The value of their property is immense. Is it possible, therefore, to conceive a motive so powerful as to induce them to resign to the public any part of their property? Will they ever indiscriminately, like Sir Ashton Lever, open their repositories for the amusement of every idle or ignorant inquirer? Will the University compel the Faculty of Advocates to relax their present bond of union, and to adopt a new and perhaps an impracticable arrangement? This proposition, therefore, of the University, seems to be altogether inexplicable. The Antiquarian Society, it is admitted, may occasionally intercept some old papers which might probably have been deposited in the Faculty collection. Instances of this kind, my Lord, must be very rare: But, supposing them to be frequent, the public are not losers. All communications of this nature, deposited in the Antiquarian collection, are open not only to the perusal of the Faculty of Advocates, but to the whole republic of letters. If the remaining antiquities of this country be recovered and preserved, it is of little importance where they are deposited. If, in particular instances, the Antiquarian Society be preferred to the Faculty of Advocates, the advantage is evidently in favour of the public; because the public have a positive right to the use of every article with which the Antiquarian Society is entrusted. But the case is reversed with regard to the Faculty collection.

It is finally proposed by the University, That all objects of Natural History, acquired by the intended Royal Society, shall be deposited in the Museum of the University of Edinburgh. If the future, my Lord, is to be judged of by the past, the College Museum is a very ominous repository. The University have had near two centuries for the exertion of their industry, in collecting and preserving the productions of nature. We know not whether they made any collection previous to the death of our learned and worthy countryman Sir Robert Sibbald. That gentleman bequeathed his valuable Museum to the University. They were also entrusted with the Museum of Sir Andrew Balfour, which was likewise a numerous and valuable collection. It is an undeniable fact, my Lord, that neither of these two collections have now the vestige of existence:

ence: How they were dilapidated, or allowed to perish, it is not our business to inquire. There is still a more recent instance of similar remissness. Not many years ago, a spirited young Nobleman endowed the University with an expensive and curious collection of natural objects. What was the fate of this third collection? To this question we can give an explicit answer: It was sold by the executors of the late Dr Ramsay, Professor of Natural History. What is still worse, most of the articles were purchased by a Russian, and, of course, are irrecoverably lost to this country.

ANOTHER observation must not be omitted. If it were possible that his Majesty should be advised to refuse a charter of protection to the property of the Antiquarian Society, what benefit is to be derived from such refusal, either to the University or to the Faculty of Advocates? Our property is vested in the person of a trustee. This is the third year since the Society was instituted. We may proceed, in the same manner, for any given period. Opposition, therefore, to our charter, unless some legal objection to our existence were produced, can bring no advantage to our learned opponents. It is impossible for them to dissolve our Society, and they can never force us to part with our property, or prevent us from making future accumulations. But, gratitude to public generosity induces us to ask the utmost protection the laws of our country can afford.

THE Society of the Antiquaries of Scotland mean not to insinuate any objection against the erection of this new-projected Society. They may be indulged, however, with a single remark. The University likewise admit, that our limited plan comprehends two material branches of their more general and diffused project. Let the University, in these circumstances, answer the following query: why is the Antiquarian Society, which includes antiquities and natural history, not comprehended as a branch of the intended Royal Society? Besides, this magnificent project of a Royal Society was never heard of till the Antiquarian Society had subsisted near two years. It is much to be suspected, my Lord, that the scheme was invented by a few members of the University, for the sole purpose of giving a decent colour to an opposition which appears to have been dictated by an ill-founded jealousy.

UPON the whole, when your Lordship has considered the *motives* of this opposition, and the *arguments* produced to support it, the Society of Antiquaries cannot entertain a doubt, that your known candour will induce your Lordship to give a favourable report to his Majesty, both of the state and intentions of this Society, and that you will think their association entitled to the protection of a Royal charter, especially as no legal objection can be stated against the propriety of such a reasonable request.

* * * In this DISPUTE the Society of the Scottish Antiquaries prevailing over Dr. Robertson and his friends, obtained the charter for which they had applied.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

THEATRE.

WE are now to give some account of the talents of the comic actresses belonging to Drury Lane. We are obliged to repeat that the limits of our publication will not admit of detail or prolixity; therefore, though there are many who occasionally appear in characters of consequence, some new to the town, of whom we do not think it just to give a decided opinion at present, and others who are substitutes in case of illness, we shall confine our remarks to the following, videlicet.—Miss Farren, Miss Pope, Mrs. Wrighten, Mrs. Bulkley, Miss Phillips, Miss Field, Mrs. Hopkins, and Mrs. Brereton.

The desertion of Mrs. Abington from Drury Lane to Covent Garden theatre, left an open field for the display of Miss Farren's abilities, of which the public had before entertained great hopes. The task, however, was a severe one, perhaps too severe. The manner of Mrs. Abington is not only excellent in itself, but the Auditors were so used to it, and remembered it so perfectly in each instance, where the wit, satire, or situation was remarkable, that her successor must have been her superior to have been thought her equal. Truth requires we should say, though Miss Farren has great merit, she was neither. She is yet young, and from the progress she made during the first seasons of her appearance on the London theatres, we have reason to hope, that if she pursues her endeavours to excell, with the same ardour she began, she will become the favourite of Thalia, and one of the brightest ornaments of the stage. Her figure is tall, but not sufficiently muscular; were it a little more embonpoint, it would be one of the finest the Theatre can boast. Her eyes are lively, her face handsome, and very capable both of comic and sentimental expression. But she has lately fallen into an error in the use of these gifts, which, if she is ambitious of true praise, it is incumbent on her immediately to correct. She is too playful, too free in the management of her countenance, and frequently not only understands too soon, but more than is consistent with the character. In real life, if any gentleman is audacious enough to utter a double entendre, every lady of good sense is careful to give no intimation of knowing its indelicate meaning, but continues the conversation in its direct and innocent construction, thereby avoiding to give any indications of the coquet, the prude, or the wanton. Our Poets, it is true, take too great liberties, and which we are sorry to observe, our Actresses are more industrious to display than conceal. It is exceedingly painful to the rational part of an Audience, when they see a young lady, who is to be the head of an honourable house, insinuate, that she understands more than is becoming of an amiable innocence to understand, and they frequently depart with no very favourable opinion either of the real or fictitious personage. If therefore, by the nature of the dialogue, as is too often the case, an Actress is obliged to answer one indelicacy by another, she will be certain of giving more satisfaction by softening the colouring, than by making it more glaring.

Miss Farren has a clear and distinct articulation, but as her voice is not exceedingly powerful, it is necessary she should speak loud at present, and endeavour by private exertions to improve its tone for the future. She, like most other performers, has been more successful in new plays than old. When young performers have the happiness to obtain a good part in a play, where no comparisons can be made, if they have any talents, then is the time to display them. Few have the capability or the courage to attempt originality in old characters, in which the dress, the action, and the manners have been established, and have received a sort of sanction by foregone success. Miss Farren's performance in the *Chapter of Accidents* is charming, and the amiable sensibility she discovers in that play, makes us regret that nature has not given her powers equal to her feelings, as she would then undoubtedly have been a delightful tragic Actress.

In characters of arch or splenetic humour, of ill bred coquets, of impertinent chambermaids, and of satirical defamers, Miss Pope has not her equal remaining on the stage. She studied the manner of Mrs. Clive, and the pupil is worthy of the mistress. Her articulation is good, her voice powerful, and her delivery equally distinct, whether it be required to be voluble or slow. Her imagination is lively, and her judgment excellent; and a part must be indeed barren of humour, if Miss Pope cannot make it pleasant. Whoever has seen her in *Dolly Snip*, the *Taylor's Daughter* in *Harlequin's Invasion*, must be convinced of her comic powers. We do not mean to insinuate that this is her best part, there are many others in which the frequenters of the Theatres must have beheld her with equal pleasure. Mrs. Ford, Mrs. Foresight, Foible, Phillis, Cherry, Lappet, &c. &c. are recent in every one's memory; nor is there, perhaps, more natural or intelligent acting to be seen, as far as the character extends, than her Mrs. Candour in the *School for Scandal*. The easy manner in which she repeats her scandalous anecdotes, at the very moment that she decries the practice, is so happy an imitation of habitual backbiters, that every body immediately acknowledges the justness of the picture. The following quotation from this celebrated comedy will better remind the Reader, than any description we can give, of her excellence.

Mrs. Candour. Oh my dear Lady Sneerwell—how do you do?—
—Mr. Surface your most obedient—Is there any news abroad?—
No! nothing good I suppose—No! nothing but scandal—nothing but scandal.

Jos. Just so, indeed Madam.

Mrs. Can. Nothing but scandal!—Ah, Maria, how do you do child? What is every thing at an end between you and Charles? What, he is too extravagant?—Ay! the town talks of nothing else.

Mar. I am sorry, Madam, the town is so ill employed.

Mrs. Can. Ay, so am I, Child—But what can one do? One can't stop people's tongues—They hint too that your Guardian and his Lady don't live so agreeably together as they did.

Mar. I am sure such reports are without foundation.

Mrs. Can. Ay, so these things, generally are—It's like Mrs. Fashion's

Fashion's affair with Colonel Coterie—Though, indeed, that affair was never rightly cleared up—And, it was but yesterday Miss Prim assured me Mr. and Mrs. Honeymoon were become mere man and wife, like the rest of their acquaintance. She likewise hinted, that a certain widow in the next street had got rid of her dropsy, and recovered her shape in a most surprizing manner.

Jos. The licence of invention some people give themselves is astonishing.

Mrs. Can. It is so—But how will you stop people's tongues? It was but yesterday Mrs. Clackit inform'd me, that our old friend Miss Prudely was going to elope, and that her Guardian caught her just stepping into the York Diligence with her Dancing Master.—I was told too that Lord Flimsy caught his Lady at a house of no extraordinary fame, and that Tom Jaunter and Sir Harry Idle were to measure swords on a similar occasion—but, I dare say there is no truth in the story, and I would not circulate such a report for the world.

Jos. You report! No, no, no.

Mrs. Can. No, no—Tale bearers are just as bad as the tale makers—&c. &c. &c.'

It is the apparent consciousness of not being a tale bearer, while she delivers her scandal to a few persons, whom by her manner she intimates to be mere confidential friends that she knows will not report what they hear, consequently it can be no scandal to relate such flying reports in their hearing; it is this mask of conscious innocence, even while she is committing the crime, that gives such an appearance of reality to Miss Pope's acting in the above scene, and the author and the actresses have equally proved, they were acquainted with life and manners.

Mrs. Wrihten is not only a good actress, but a delightful singer; her voice is the most clear, extensive, full, and perfect the stage has ever, in our memory, possessed; and, it is much to be regretted, that her genius inclined her to parts of humour instead of those of a more serious cast, in which her voice might not only have had frequent opportunities of having its wonderful powers displayed, but which would likewise have induced her to study the more refined and finished beauties of singing, which not being necessary to the comic stile, she has, in great part neglected. The astonishing effects, however, which she produces in certain songs, purposely written to display her voice, make every lover of the sweet, the captivating charms of melody and harmony, lament that her studies did not take another turn. Mrs. Sheridan and Mrs. Bates are enchanting singers, but what would they have been with Mrs. Wrihten's powers? People less fond of music than we are, may think differently, and remembering Mrs. Wrihten's merit as a comic actress, which is undoubtedly great, would not wish her any thing else. There is certainly a degree of sportive risibility in her countenance, which seems to indicate the way that nature points; but, as she possesses a lively imagination, and a quick sensibility, it is probable, that different habits might have exhibited different appearances, and different effects. As it is, she never fails to delight the town; and every author, whose design will admit of it,

is equally anxious to give employment both to her singing and speaking talents; which, combined, occasion her to be oftner employed, especially in new pieces, than any other actresses on the stage, at least than any actress at Drury Lane theatre. The characters she plays are generally those of intriguing chambermaids, village girls, and others of the like nature, where arch simplicity and humorous gaiety are requisite; and she is an excellent representative of such happy beings as constitutionally possess good spirits and merry hearts.

Mrs. Bulkley, who is a relation of the late Mr. Rich, patentee of Covent Garden theatre, played all the former part of her life at the house to which she may be said by right of inheritance to belong, and has only been one season at Drury Lane. She is mistress of an easy address, and has very much the manners of well bred people. Her speech is articulate, but her voice is deficient in power, and has a harshness of tone; she manages it however with great art. Her figure is elegant, of the middle size, and though she is neither exceeding young or handsome, gives her a very pleasing appearance on the stage. Her talents have always made her a favourite with the town as an actress; and perhaps it is solely the defect of her voice that has kept her from being a performer of the first eminence in tragedy, as well as comedy. We have heard Mrs. Bulkley, when the house has been attentive, deliver Portia's celebrated speech on mercy in the Merchant of Venice, with so much propriety and feeling, that she has obtained universal applause. But a good voice is one of the most necessary requisites of a good actor, the want of which, genius itself can scarcely supply. Colley Cibber, who was certainly a proper judge of these things, says in his apology, "So strong, so very near indispensable is that one article of voice in forming a good tragedian, that an actor may want any other qualification whatsoever, and yet have a better chance for applause than he will ever have, with all the skill in the world, if his voice is not equal to it." Nor should Mr. Cibber have confined his remarks to the tragedian; the comedian of humour must at least have a loud voice, and he who personates the lover or the man of sensibility, should likewise have a sweet one.

In the dearth of tragical actresses which has predominated lately at Drury Lane theatre, (Mrs. Siddons excepted) Mrs. Bulkley has been occasionally called upon to assist at the sacrifices of Melpomene; and though the reason we have just given, would not permit her to act as high priestess, she has held up the tragic muse's train with great decency. Her chief merit, however, consists in performing characters of a different kind; the coquet, the well bred or the fine lady, where the passions undergo no violence of agitation, and where ease and propriety are the great requisites, these are the parts in which she most excels.

Miss Phillips is a young actress of great expectation, and made her first appearance two seasons ago, in the part of Mandane in Artaxerxes. From the progress she has already made, we may safely predict, if she remains on the stage, she will become a great favourite with the public; and should her industry keep pace with her talents, her future success must equal her utmost ambition. Her figure is of the middle size,

and though not yet sufficiently improved by the dancing master, naturally graceful: her face is beautiful, and her voice delightful. But while we do every justice to her charms and her abilities, it is our duty to point out such deficiencies, as if not corrected, will half obscure her merits, and rob the public of that perfection which they have in some measure a right to expect. Her action is at present too confined; instead of moving her whole arm, she keeps her elbow to her side, and acts only with the fore part of her arm: this is an error into which most young performers fall, and is difficult to correct. Ease and grace, which in fact are synonymous, require that the action should begin from the shoulder, and that the elbows should be turned out, otherwise the shoulders and arms form a variety of angles instead of curve lines, and give a sharp, prominent, and skeleton appearance, exceedingly disagreeable to the imagination. Miss Phillips likewise has acquired a habit of slooping occasionally, that merits a strict and serious attention, or it is a disease that will presently become incurable. Her articulation is excellent, and her delivery good; but though we see she feels intimately herself, she has not yet acquired the power of conveying her feelings, with all their force, to the audience. Time and practice alone can teach her this difficult but charming art.

In singing, she has studied the staccato too much, than which nothing is more destructive of sentiment and expression; it may sometimes excite surprise, but never passion; and though it is a kind of trick that will have a good effect in the whimsical and outré performances of Miss Catley, it never can succeed in characters of a tender and delicate nature, such as Patty in the Maid of the Mill, Clarissa in the School for Fathers, and others of a like cast, in which Miss Phillips we hope will progressively be seen.

We have spoken of these defects in this promising and engaging young actress for several reasons; first, from a sincere desire to see the stage in possession of as much perfection as possible; next, that she herself may enjoy as great a reputation, from a perfect knowledge of the art she professes, as from the gifts of which nature has been so prodigal to her; and again, that others may learn to avoid or correct those errors, into which young performers are so very liable to fall. Miss Phillips is happy in extraordinary natural endowments, an enchanting voice, a beautiful person, and a sensible heart, are rarely united; we are anxious to see them produce their full effect; and it should be remembered, that to whom much is given, from them much is required. We have in a former paper inveighed against that disrespectful habit which actors are apt to acquire, of looking among the audience to find out their acquaintance: if it is disgusting in men, and from people of a long standing and great intimacy with the town, it is trebly so from young persons, especially ladies, in whom a respectful bashfulness is a pleasing token of innocence and worth. Miss Phillips perhaps, and we hope unconsciously, is sometimes guilty of this fault; if she knows her own interest, she never will be so again.

Miss Field is likewise a singer, and as far as her powers extend, a charming one. Her voice is thin and delicate, but capable of great execution in the bravura stile, and is generally excellently in tune,
which

which is one of the best qualities of a good singer. Her person, though not beautiful, is pleasing; but, like her voice, it wants importance. In speaking, she always delivers her author with great propriety and sensibility, of which we cannot point out a more convincing instance than her performance of Ariel in the *Tempest*, in which, though the language is exceedingly figurative and difficult for the speaker, she delivers it with all the spirit and accuracy of the most finished comedian, and discovers so many proofs of an acute apprehension and a good understanding, that we cannot help regretting nature has not been equally bountiful to her in other respects. She has played Rosetta, Miss Jenny, and other parts, and the same kind of beauties, and the same defects, are observable in them all.

Mrs. Hopkins is an actress who has been long on the stage, and has a considerable share of merit in her stile of playing, which is chiefly that of mothers and maidenly ladies. Her figure is what it should be for such characters, and her voice and deportment correspond. But though her person, the strength of her features, and the tone of her voice, are happily adapted to ridicule the affectation of youth, beauty, and sweetness, yet humour is not the bent of her temper and disposition; she sometimes plays the Queen in *Hamlet*, and Emilia in *Othello*, in which parts she is evidently more interested, more impassioned, and feels them more intimately than those where ridicule is intended. To weep for injuries, or resent them, to be terrified at the consciousness of guilt and fear of consequent punishment, are affections common to all; true and native humour is the gift only of a few. Mrs. Hopkins, though she does not possess so much of the *vis comica* as Mrs. Green*, is still the best actress at present on the stage in that cast, and is likely so to remain.

Mrs. Brereton is a small, but beautiful woman, and her powers, though confined, are sufficient for the parts she plays; these are, generally, the young lovesick ladies in comedies and farces, and which on the English stage, have frequently very little effect, except as they are necessary to carry on the intrigue. Indeed, if a judgment may be formed from our plays, the suspense, anxiety, and terrors of love, are but feebly known to the English, for though there is a love plot in every play, tragedy or comedy, farce or pantomime, it is, to use a homely metaphor, rather the bag that holds the pudding than a part of the pudding itself.

The character of most passion and consequence that we remember to have seen Mrs. Brereton perform, is that of Fanny in the *Clandestine Marriage*, which, though she feels, acts, and speaks with great justice, is yet above her powers, as it is, in fact, the principal character in the piece, and the one on which the interest of the play entirely turns. The public have, notwithstanding, great reason in general to be satisfied with Mrs. Brereton; there is always a respectful and modest attention to the audience visible in her deportment, and a pleasing propriety in her acting. She has another advantage, she is the daughter of Mrs. Hopkins, has been bred to

* Late of Covent Garden Theatre, and celebrated for her performance of the *Duenna*.

her profession, and has by that means not only acquired an easy carriage, but a thorough acquaintance with the *Jue de Theatre*, by which, though she may not produce any great effect herself, she contributes to produce it in others, which might be, and often is destroyed by the mal-address, or ignorance of those who play secondary parts.

As the Winter Theatres are now closed, and it is not possible to give the same just and accurate account of Performers by the mere strength of memory, as by personal inspection, and making our observations while the actor is present to the eye, we shall defer our critical remarks on the Performers of Covent Garden Theatre till the ensuing season, when we shall again renew the subject, and hope to preserve our impartiality, and all our other good properties, if such we have, in our future, as in our former essays. The Theatre is as well worthy the contemplation of the Philosopher and the Legislator, as the Man of Taste. We are persuaded it contributes, in its present state, to humanize the heart, and correct the manners. It turns the follies of mankind to ridicule, it gives the most beautiful precepts for their conduct, it allures them to the practice of virtue by declamation conveyed in thoughts so poetical, and language so attractive, as to delight the imagination without burthening the memory, and it deters them from the commission of crimes, by exhibiting terrible examples of the dreadful consequences of vice. If it is not uniform in the tendency of its effects, it is because Legislators have never yet been sufficiently convinced of the power of the Drama, to incorporate it with the constitution, and make it a legal and necessary establishment; or rather, perhaps, because some men were fearful, lest while they were erecting the temple of morality, they should erase the tottering structure of superstition, in the preservation of which, themselves, their children, or their dependants, were materially interested.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

(Continued from our last.)

IT is difficult to say, at the present moment, what is the spirit or predominant passion of the English nation. The noise of war has ceased, but we are not struck with any visible ardour in the pursuits of peace. It was expected, that immediately after the general pacification, a new and unusual alacrity would appear in every branch of industry. That new streets would extend the greatness of the British metropolis, and that new villas would rise in the adjacent country. That manufactures of every kind would flourish, and that fleets of merchant ships would fully employ our disbanded sailors. A lapse of three months has not fulfilled these expectations. In one corner only of London, is there any appearance of building * to any considerable extent: and this is not the effect of a national spirit or commercial enterprize, but the scheme of a rich individual

* Bedford-square. The Duke of Bedford, the proprietor of the ground, lends money to the builders at 4 per cent.

of the highest order of nobility, in order to increase an over grown fortune.

The iron manufactures alone are enlivened by the peace. Other manufactures remain in much the same state they were in during the war. A few sanguine and enterprizing merchants have sent goods to America: but the mercantile part of the nation in general, seems to consider the American market as uninviting, and full of danger and uncertainty. It does not appear, as yet, that the Americans are so forward to revive old habits of intercourse, commerce, and friendship with Britain, as many of our politicians imagined. We are well informed on this subject. Peace is grateful to an infant nation that smarted under the calamities of war, and that was not without apprehensions of retorning under the yoke of a great and incensed kingdom. But the Americans have opened their mind to greater objects than a free commerce with Britain. The whole world they consider as a theatre for American commerce: and both in their public papers, and private letters they speak with rapture and an elevation of conception, which nothing but the grandest objects could have inspired, of the triumphs of liberty, the fruits of unbounded commerce, and the felicity and glory of a country destined by providence to afford subsistence to the industrious, liberty to the captive, and relief to the oppressed. The European nations are animated by so captivating an object. An unusual spirit of industry, and commercial enterprize, with the dawning of liberty their natural concomitant, appear in the northern kingdoms. Preparations are making in different countries for trade with America: orders for goods to be shipped for the American market have been received in London, Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, Bristol, and other trading and manufacturing towns. And, at the same time that Britain sees other nations beginning to share in the trade of her ancient colonies, she has the melancholy prospect of the carriage of British manufactures passing, in part, into the hands of foreigners, Danes, Swedes, Hollanders, and Germans.

Such are the fruits of that oppression under the reign of the STUARTS, which drove multitudes to people and to cultivate the woods and the swamps of North America, and of those necessities which obliged the princes of that race to sell to the colonists charters, that nourished in their breasts those seeds of freedom, which first united, and afterwards dis severed from Great Britain, so great a portion of the western world. It is amusing to reflect on the intricacies of human affairs, and how short a way human sagacity sees into futurity! Who could have foretold that the civil and religious tyranny of the last century would have produced effects so beneficial to mankind? Or who foresees the various important consequences which must arise from the emancipation of the Colonies in every quarter of the world? The most enlightened geniuses in the reigns of the Stuarts, were ignorant that the oppressions of the Court, formed a link in that mysterious chain of providence, or of fate, which brings good out of evil, and, sometimes partial and transient evil out of apparent good. It is not impossible that some future speculator may, in like manner observe, that it would have been difficult for a politician, in the present period, to have prognosticated that the inde-

pendency

pendency of the British Colonies, acknowledged by the whole world, would only be an introduction to the turbulence of faction, the discord of provinces, and the slavery of the people?

The various schemes of political reformation which had, for a very considerable time, occupied and amused a certain number of the people of England, undoubtedly originated, not in the different Counties, but within the walls of St. Stephen's chapel. Ambitious men devised these, as the means of raising such a tide of popularity as might carry them to profitable and important stations of government. Their object being attained, they would in all probability, have very willingly allayed that spirit of reformation which they had before been industrious to excite. The support of popular clamour and combination, politicians oftentimes find very inconvenient. The grand engine of Cromwell's exaltation, was the great object of his terror after he had attained the height of power. Mr. Fox, with his adherents, contended indeed, in opposition to Lord North and his friends, for reformation, as usual. He was baffled by his brother secretary, in this important struggle. Matters of a trifling nature, when they are the tests of power, assume an importance that does not naturally belong to them, and are not unfrequently the sources of animosity and discord. A matter of greater consequence could not have been submitted to the consideration of parliament, than that which divided the two secretaries of state: yet with what meekness and moderation did they treat each other in the high debate? Mr. Pitt's motion for reformation was rejected by a majority of two to one. No jealousies arises among ministers on that account. The disposal of a place or pension, had North appeared on one side, and Fox on another, would have puzzled and embarrassed the whole cabinet council. A difference of opinion with regard to a great national question, makes no difference between the reconciled statesmen. Every appearance is preserved of cordiality: and ludicrous representations of their singular coalition still adorn the print shops of London.

The nation is not inattentive to the facts which have just now been re-counted. The farce of patriotism has excited a very general indignation: and a new phenomenon begins to appear in parliament; an independent party without a leader. The increase or the diminution of this party will form a criterion whereby we may judge of the public spirit, or of the corruption of the nation. This is an object which naturally attracts the attention of every man who is at all interested in the fate of his country. It is this spirit of independence in the senate, and not twenty thousand subscriptions * to petitions for a reform in Parliament, that ought to be considered as the genuine voice of the people of England. For such a party is neither governed by the factious clamours of popular leaders on the one hand, nor by the influence of the court on the other, Equally free from the dominion of both, their minds are at li-

* After all has been said of the county petitions, the number of petitioners does not exceed twenty thousand. This was affirmed by Lord North in the House of Commons, in the debate on Pitt's motion, and was not contradicted.

erty to pursue, by constitutional ways, the real interests of their country.

The spirit of political reformation has at last reached North Britain. The aristocratical *sett* or constitution of the Scotch burghs, and the nominal and fictitious votes which place the election of members of parliament in the hands of a few, and exclude from the rights of freemen so great a proportion of the wealthy and real independent natives of Scotland, are attacked in several publications by Scotch gentlemen with great force of reasoning: and combinations are forming for the redress of these grievances. It is difficult to conjecture what will be the final issue of the outcry for reformation. The active energy of the friends of reformation will probably be diverted into some other channel, and swallowed up and lost in whatever shall constitute the general temper and tone of the nation. At present the nation seems to be in a state of uncertainty and suspense. It has not yet taken its tone. No confidence in Administration! No ardour of commerce! Languor and division among political reformers! Feebleness in government! And a spirit of faction and disobedience yet lurking among the subjects.

The present is the age of reformation. The Emperor proceeds with equal steadiness and rapidity to demolish the ancient seats of idleness and superstition, and to apply to political purposes those funds which the religious fervours of his predecessors had bestowed on the all-grasping clergy. An hundred convents have been abolished in the Austrian Netherlands. But the humanity of his imperial Majesty has shone forth, on this occasion; as conspicuously as his political conduct and courage. The dispossessed monks are allowed small salaries for life, with liberty, if they chuse it, to spend the remainder of their days in other convents. The grand Duke of Tuscany follows the example of his brother, *hanc passibus aequis*. When he is in good spirits, he acts like a prudent and political prince, and down goes the other convent. But in his melancholy moods the apprehensions of religion stay the hand of the statesman, and still dispute with policy the supremacy of Italy.

The eyes of the king of Prussia, and the empress of all the Russias, which are open on every revolution in the world, are not inattentive to the movements of the House of Austria: and by patronizing the priests and professors of the catholic religion, seek to derive some political advantage to their own crowns from the political conduct of the Emperor. The Austrian race no longer glory in patronizing the church of Rome, or under the veil of religious zeal seek to promote their own greatness. It is by pulling down, not by exalting the papal authority and power, that the Austrian princes of the present times are about to promote the aggrandizement of their family. So different are the methods by which the house of Austria has at different times pursued the same object!

Time which illustrates the conduct of princes begins to unfold the views which occupied the mind of the Emperor when he resisted the solicitations of the merchants of Antwerp, and refused to seize the opportunity, which was presented by the embarrassment of the Dutch, of opening the navigation of the Scheld, undoubtedly the finest river, in respect of commerce, in Europe. "I wish said the Empe-

Emperor to exhibit to princes an example of good faith in the observance of treaties." * It was as sound as it was just policy in the Emperor to observe inviolably the treaty of Munster, and by that moderation of conduct to leave the northern frontier of his kingdoms in the possession of peace, at a time when his projects towards the east and the south were likely to involve him in the flames of war. It is generally believed on the continent, and on the most probable grounds, that the grand object which has for years employed the activity of the Emperor's mind, is, to open the navigation of the Danube, and thereby to form an outlet for the rich and various produce of Austria and Hungary. If the Sublime Porte shall consent to this plan, his Imperial Majesty, it is probable, in the contest which is ready to break out between the Russians and the Turks, will observe a strict neutrality, and continue to raise the power and importance of his dominions, in the scale of nations, by the arts of peace. If otherwise, a junction of the Imperial forces with those of the Empress, threatens the expulsion of the Turks from Europe. It is the power of France alone that can prevent or protract so important a revolution in the history of Europe. For the Turkish pride is not so far broken as long to suffer with patience the Imperial flag to be displayed in the Thracian *Bosphorus*, and the sea of *Marmora*. A war must, sooner or later, be kindled between the Austrians and Turks; which, in all probability will spread over other European nations. Here therefore an immense field is opened to the speculative politician. How great may be the effects of the navigation of the Danube on the industry and the wealth of Germany; and of these, on the industry, wealth, and relative greatness or decline of other European nations? Where is the animosity that shall be excited in Russia, the Imperial dominions, and, not unlikely in Great Britain, against the Ottoman race, to stop? And when shall these powers sheath the sword, and say it is enough? The states of Barbary may, in the end feel the weight of that arm which was originally lifted up against the Turks: and new settlements in Africa may, perhaps, console the British nation for the loss of her territories in America. By such revolutions the interests of literature and science would be materially affected: and the philosopher, the philologist, and the virtuoso, as well as the politician, the manufacturer and the merchant, would be deeply interested in these new and important events.

These speculations are full of uncertainty. But the mind, from the reflection on past, delights to form conjectures concerning future events; and in the present era of revolution, for boldness of conjecture there is some indulgence.

* The tone assumed by the Emperor is very different from that of the king of Prussia. That social and pleasant monarch, who indulges those about him in all the freedom of familiar conversation, began to talk, one night at supper, of the affairs of Poland. A gentleman present observed that the ambition of powerful neighbours, in the partition of that kingdom, had set aside the formalities of justice. "It is very true said the king, as for me I am a robber by profession. But that religious lady the Empress of Germany! what do ye think of her?"

THE
ENGLISH REVIEW,

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ART. I. *Dissertations Moral and Critical.* On Memory and Imagination. On Dreaming. The Theory of Language. On Fable and Romance. On the Attachments of Kindred. Illustrations on Sublimity. By James Beattie, LL. D. Professor of Moral Philosophy and Logick in the Marischal College and University of Aberdeen; and Member of the Zealand Society of Arts and Sciences. 4to. 18s. boards. Cadell, London; Creech, Edinburgh.

FROM the days of DES CARTES, to the present times, modern philosophers have laboured to penetrate into the principles that govern the various operations of the human mind, and to ascertain with mathematical and logical precision, the nature of belief, and of the different species of evidence, of truth, or knowledge. This arduous attempt involved men of genius in endless mazes of metaphysical subtleties and refinements. Doubt and uncertainty were the result of speculations, that seem placed beyond the reach of the human intellect. Locke, Berkely, and Hume, were successively at the head of metaphysical inquirers; and their labours produced nothing else than the cold and unprofitable conclusion, that human life is a dream, that all things appear loose and unconnected, that there is no foundation in reason for inferring the future from the past, or the permanence of existence from fluctuating and transient ideas, and impressions.

The reasoning employed in the process that led to this deduction, was close, accurate, and unexceptionable. The principles, on which the arguments made use of in this reasoning ultimately rested, were therefore to be overturned, or the conclusions that necessarily flowed from them to be

admitted. An ingenious Professor in a Scotch University*, attacked these principles in an Inquiry into the Senses, and shewed that reasoning holds of sense, but that sense holds not of reasoning; that the mind perceives objects, not by the intervention of ideas, but directly and by an intuitive force of perception or apprehension; and that along with every sensation, excited by any object, there is necessarily communicated to the mind, a conviction of the existence of that object.

As the coldness of scepticism is equally opposite to the fire of poetical fancy, and the enthusiasm of religion, the philosophy of Dr. Reid met with the approbation and countenance of many pious and poetical persons, and Dr. Beattie appeared as a coadjutor to his countryman in the support of religion, virtue, and truth: objects which he conceived to be materially injured by a species of philosophy, that professed a total ignorance and uncertainty with regard to every species of truth. It is in the spirit of Dr. Beattie's former publications to withdraw the mind from the abstractions of metaphysics, and to inspire a reverence for the authority of sense; to wean the understanding from the habits of reasoning, and to amuse the imagination, and interest the heart, by holding up to view the most affecting pictures of nature, and all that is fitted to work upon the apprehensions of religion, and the sensibility of taste.

These, which are the most prominent features in Dr. Beattie's former writings, in the performance before us are still more striking. Peculiarities of every kind encrease with years. This writer is still more inimical to abstracted reasoning than ever. He is more devoted to sentiment and feeling, more employed in practical reflections, and more studious to defend the doctrines, and enforce the precepts of religion.

The Dissertations now offered to the public, we are informed in a preface, were part of a course of prelections, read to young gentlemen whom it was the Author's business to initiate in moral science. The character of Dr. Beattie explains the reason why, from the chair of moral philosophy, he entertains his pupils with Critical Dissertations. There is a near affinity between delicacy of taste and virtue: and a taste for the sublime, in particular, as this Author well observes, 'cherished into a habit, and directed to proper objects, may, by preserving us from vice, which is the vilest of all things, and by recommending virtue for its intrinsic dignity, be useful in promoting our moral improvement. The same taste will also lead to the study of nature, which every where displays the

* Dr. Reid, of Aberdeen.

sublimest appearances. And no study has a better effect upon the heart. For it keeps men at a distance from criminal pursuits, yields a variety of inoffensive and profitable amusement, and gives full demonstration of the infinite goodness and greatness of the adorable Creator.'

Here also many questions are handled by Dr. Beattie in metaphysics, that appear at first sight to have but little connection with moral philosophy. A solution of them, however, in a certain manner, is not altogether unnecessary to that system of evidence, on which Dr. Beattie founds so many important truths in morality, and in religion. On these principles, on the connection of taste with virtue, and of metaphysical speculation with moral and religious truths, we can account for the appearance of a Professor of Moral Philosophy spending a considerable portion of his time, in lectures on *Memory and Imagination*, on *Fable and Romance*, on the *Attachments of Kindred*, in *Illustrations on Sublimity*, and even on *Dreaming*. But one half of the present large volume is entitled, "The Theory of Language. In two Parts. Part I. Of the *Origin and general Nature of Speech*, Part II. Of *Universal Grammar*." These subjects doubtless do not belong to the province of moral philosophy, but rather to logic and polite literature. How then can Dr. Beattie be excused for taking up so much time in dissertations on language, in the midst of a course of moral philosophy? The nature of virtue, the foundation of moral obligation, the relative duties of men, the great principles of jurisprudence, the law of nature and nations; these might well seem to occupy the utmost industry both of Professor and Student for the short space of a few months, without long digression on any subject.

In general it deserves to be observed, that the Essays which compose the present work, abound in criticisms, both on books and men. They are enlivened by many pleasing images and scenes, as well as anecdotes, and written in a style, unaffected, simple, and perspicuous. Virtue is recommended, not in the dry and uninteresting manner of didactic system, but as she appears in human form, in all the glowing colours of every amiable and heroic affection and passion. Such views of nature are exhibited, as amuse and elevate the fancy, and such plain and practical truths, as serve to direct the conduct of life. Here we find a teacher, who does not so much aim to form a subtle reasoner, or a man of bustle and intrigue in the great affairs of states and kingdoms; as to awake the mind to the admiration of virtue, to purify the heart by refining, exalting, and exercising the powers of imagination and taste, and to raise the

views, and to alleviate the miseries of mankind, by a belief and trust in Divine Providence, and the hope of immortal life. But while we allow with pleasure this praise to Dr. Beattie, impartial criticism obliges us to observe, that in these essays we find little that is original or new; and of that, but a slender portion that is at once just and important. Their chief merit consists in compilation or selection, and in the exercise of taste. They strike not often into new paths, and where they do, or attempt to do, they too frequently betray inconsistency of theory, prejudice both of sentiments and persons, many of the whims of a valetudinary poet, and not a few instances of that unphilosophical credulity, which religious zeal opposes to the inquiries of curiosity and reason.

The Dissertations in this collection that appear to us the most distinguished for delicate criticism, are those on *Imagination* and *Sublimity*. Good taste, Dr. Beattie observes, is too complex to be characterised in a short definition. He therefore, very judiciously endeavours to convey an idea of that power, by enumerating the faculties or talents that must be united in the person who possesses it. These, he observes are, first, a lively and correct imagination; secondly, the power of distinct apprehension; thirdly, the capacity of being easily, strongly, and agreeably affected with sublimity, beauty, harmony, exact imitation, &c. fourthly, sympathy or sensibility of heart; and, fifthly, judgment or good sense, which is the principal ingredient, and may not improperly be said to comprehend all the rest.

On the first of these qualities he thus expatiates:

‘ Good taste implies Lively Imagination. This talent qualifies one, for readily understanding an author’s purpose; tracing the connection of his thoughts; forming the same views of things which he had formed; and clearly conceiving the several images or ideas that the artist describes or delineates.

‘ In this respect, the minds of different men are differently constituted. Some can enter into a description of what they have seen, or of what is familiar; and follow an author’s train of thought, when he lays down a plan, and proceeds accordingly: but are not able to comprehend such thoughts or images as are uncommon: or to mark those delicacies of connection, which give surprise, or which imitate the desultory operations of enthusiasm, or any other ardent passion. Yet these delicate transitions are among the chief beauties of poetry. The philosopher lays down a plan, and follows it; his business being only, to instruct. But the orator sometimes, and the poet frequently, conceals his plan, and makes you expect something different from what he intends; because his aim is, to please, by working upon your passions, and fancy: which is never more effectually done, than when he exhibits what is at once natural and surprising.—In the end of Virgil’s second Georgick, the

the praises of a country life are, by the poet's management, closely connected with the former part of the book, which treats of trees and vines: but the connection is not obvious to every eye: and they, who do not see it, blame the author for his want of method. The same delicate contrivance appears in the end of the first Georgick: where, from the precepts of agriculture, he makes a nice though natural transition to the prodigies that attended the death of Julius Cæsar, and thence to the calamities of civil war; after which, he resumes, with equal art the subject of agriculture, and so concludes the book.

' The language of enthusiasm, and of all those passions that strongly agitate the soul, is naturally incoherent; and may appear even extravagant to those, who cannot enter into the views of the speaker, or form an idea of what is passing in his mind. Hence, in the odes of Pindar, and in some of the odes of Gray, which imitate the language of enthusiasm, many readers complain, that they are often at a loss to discover connection between the contiguous sentiments: while others, not more learned perhaps, find no difficulty in conceiving the progress of ideas, that lead these authors from one thought or image to another. The latter, surely, are the only persons qualified to judge of those odes: and this qualification they seem to derive from their superiour liveliness of fancy. In a word, the imagination of a critic must, in respect of vivacity, be able to keep pace with that of the authors, whom he assumes the privilege of judging, or wishes to read with the true relish. Their powers of invention it is not necessary that he possess: but, in readily apprehending or imagining every thing they are pleased to set before him he cannot be in any degree inferior, without being in the same degree an incompetent judge. If we are unable to conceive a poet's imagery, or enter into his sentiments, we understand him as little, as if we were ignorant of his language.

' The greatest liveliness of imagination will, however, avail but little, if it is not *corrected* and regulated by the knowledge of nature, both external or material, and internal or moral. Without this, there cannot be Taste; because one cannot discern, whether the productions of art be natural or unnatural; that is, whether they be good or bad. In acquiring that knowledge of nature, which is necessary to taste, a man needs not descend to the *minutiae* of natural history; but he must contemplate all the striking appearances of the world around him, surveying them in those picturesque attitudes, in which they most powerfully captivate the mind, and awaken the passions.

' As means of promoting in young persons a taste for the beauties of external nature, I have in another place * recommended frequent perusals of the best descriptive poets, particularly Virgil, Spenser, and Thompson; together with some practice in drawing. I may now add, that Homer, Milton, and Shakespeare will improve that taste, and at the same time make them acquainted with Moral nature, that is, with human passions and characters;

* Essay on Poetry and Musick. Part i. chap. 2.

which however, as Horace intimates†, cannot be thoroughly understood, but by careful observation of men and manners, as they appear in the active scenes of real life.

The justness of Dr. Beattie's remarks is also concisely illustrated in the following observation, 'When an Author, in exhibiting what he thinks great, says every thing that can be said, he confounds his readers with the multitude of circumstances; and instead of rousing their imagination, leaves it in a state of indolence, by giving it nothing to do; making them at the same time suspect, that, as he has but few great ideas to offer, he is determined to make the most of what he has. Besides, long details encumber the narrative, and lengthen the poem without necessity. Brief description, therefore, and concise expression, may be considered as essential to the sublime.'

There is to be commended in these Essays, a nice sensibility to beauty and perfection, both of literary composition and human character and conduct. This turn of mind, and the tendency it has to the formation of virtue, is well illustrated in the Essay on the Attachments of Kindred.

'An interchange of the parental and filial duties is, moreover, friendly to the happiness, and to the virtue of all concerned. It gives a peculiar sensibility to the heart of man; infusing a spirit of generosity and a sense of honour, which have a most benign influence on publick good, as well as on private manners. When we read that Epaminondas, after the battle of Leuctra, declared, that one chief cause of his joy was the consideration of the pleasure which his victory would give his father and mother; is it possible for us to think, that this man, the greatest perhaps and the best that Greece ever saw‡, would have been so generous, or so amiable, if he had not known who his parents were? In fact, there are not many virtues that reflect greater honour upon our nature, than the parental and the filial. When any uncommon examples of them occur in history, or in poetry, they make their way to the heart at once, and the reader's melting eye bears testimony to their loveliness.

'Amidst the triumphs of heroism, Hector never appears so great, as in a domestick scene, when he invokes the blessing of heaven upon his child: nor does Priam, on any other occasion, engage our esteem so effectually, or our pity, as when, at the hazard of his life, he goes into the enemies camp, and into the presence of his fiercest enemy, to beg the dead body of his Son. Achilles's love to his parents forms a distinguishing part of his character; and that single circumstance throws an amiable softness into the most terrifick human personage that ever was described in poetry. The interview between Ulysses and his Father, after an absence of twenty years, it is impossible to read without such emotion, as will convince every reader of sensibility, that Homer judged well, in making parental and filial virtue the subject of his song, when he meant to shew his power over the tender passions.

† Ar. Poet. vers. 317.

‡ Epaminondas princeps, ut opinor, Græciæ. Cicero. Tuscul.
'Vir-

* Virgil was too wise, not to imitate his master in this particular. He expatiates on the same virtue with peculiar complacency; and loves to set it off in the most charming colours. His hero is an illustrious example. When Anchises refuses to leave Troy, and signifies his resolution to perish in its flames, Eneas, that he may not survive his father, or witness the massacre of his household, is on the point of rushing to certain death; and nothing less than a miracle prevents him. He then bears on his shoulders the infirm old man to a place of safety, and ever after behaves towards him as becomes a son, and a subject*; and speaks of his death in terms of the utmost tenderness and veneration. As a father he is equally affectionate: and his son is not deficient in filial duty.—Turnus, when vanquished, condescends to ask his life, for the sake of his aged parent, who he knew would be inconsolable for his loss. The young, the gentle, the beautiful Lausus dies in defence of his father; and the father provokes his own destruction, because he cannot live without his son, and wishes to be laid with him in the same grave. The lamentations of Evander over his Pallas transcend all praise of criticism. And nothing, even in this poem, the most pathetick of all human compositions, is more moving, than what is related of the gallant youth Euryalus; when, on undertaking that night-adventure which proved fatal to him, he recommends his helpless parent to the Trojan prince. “She knows not,” says he, “of this enterprise; and I go without bidding her farewell: for I call the Gods to witness, that I cannot support the sight of a weeping mother.”—Let a man read Virgil with attention, and with taste; and then be a cruel parent, or an undutiful child, if he can. And let him ask his own heart this question, Whether human nature would not be deprived of many of its best affections, and human society of its best comforts, if the ideas of those projectors were to be realised, who propose to improve the political art, by annihilating the attachments of consanguinity.’

The following observations on the *Unities of Time and Place* are exact, and merit attention.

* Most of the French and Greek tragedians observe the *unities of time and place*: that is, they suppose every part of the action to have happened in the same place, because it is all represented on the same stage; and they limit the time of it to a few hours, because the representation is of no longer continuance. Unity of place is violated, when the scene changes from one place to another, from a house to the street, from the town to the country, or from one town or country to another. Unity of time is broken through, when the incidents of the fable are such, as could not have fallen out within a few hours, or at least within the space of one day and one night.

* The observance of these unities may in some cases, no doubt, heighten the probability of the action: but they lay a mighty restraint upon an author's genius: and they may give rise to impro-

* On the death of Priam and his Sons, Anchises became king of the Trojans, and accordingly is represented by Virgil as Commander in chief in Eneas's expedition. After his death, Eneas is called king by his followers. See *Æneid*. I. 548, 557.

bilities as great as any of those that can be occasioned by the neglect of them. If the subject of the play be a conspiracy, for example, and the scene of action the street; then, if unity of place be held essential, the conspirators must conduct their affairs in the street, so as to be seen and heard by every body: a very unlikely circumstance, and what, one may venture to say, can never happen. Surely, most audiences would be better pleased, and think the whole more natural, if, on such an emergency, the scene were to change from the street to a private apartment.

'The improbabilities, occasioned by disregarding these unities, are not so great as some people imagine. While we sit in the theatre, it is as easy for us to reconcile our minds to the shifting of the scene, from the town to the country, or from one country to another; as it is, at our entrance, to suppose the stage a certain place in Rome or Egypt. And, if we can persuade ourselves, that the player, whom we see, and whose name and person we know, has on a sudden become Cato, or Cesar, or any other antient hero; we may as well believe, that the evening which we pass in the playhouse comprehends the space of several days or years.

'But in fact, there is not, in dramatical representation, that strict probability which the critics talk of. We never mistake the actor for the person whose character he bears; we never imagine ourselves in a foreign country, or carried back into the ages of antiquities: our pleasure is derived from other sources; and from this chiefly, that we know the whole to be a fiction.—The unities of time and place are violated by Shakespeare, in every one of his plays. He often shifts the scene from one country to another: and the time of his action is not always limited to days or weeks, but extends frequently to months, and even to years. Yet these irregularities are not offensive to those who understand him. And hence, I think, we may infer, that the rule, which enjoins the dramattick poet to a rigid observance of the unities of time and place, is not an essential, but a mechanical rule of composition*.'

Did our limits permit, we could with pleasure go on with multiplied proofs of Dr. Beattie's good taste, and attention to the interests of virtue. We must content ourselves, however, with expressing our approbation of what he has written on the laws of memory, and the importance of attention. Several excellent rules for the times of studying are delivered in page 37. In page 107 we find some amusing observations on the influence of custom and fashion. In page 137 we are agreeably and profitably entertained with the connection that subsists between internal and external beauty. In page 154 we are pleased with those praises that are bestowed on mediocrity of talents, as well as of fortune. In pages 155, 156, we are agreeably amused with what we shall call, the natural history of the different spe-

* See Johnson's Preface to Shakespeare; and Calfabigi's *Dissertazione su le Poesie Drammatiche del S. A. P. Metafasio*.

cies of genius. In page 174 and downwards, we meet with very just observations on the near affinity between genius and taste. From page 194 to p. 206, we are delighted with various directions for the regulation of the power of imagination. In page 223, Dr. Beattie justly observes, that the soul, wearied with continued exercise, finds more relief in changing the course of its exertions, than in *rest* itself. The same observation occurs in pages 616 and 617. Throughout the whole of these Dissertations, particularly towards the close of that on Imagination, and of that on Sublimity, we meet with sentiments of the profoundest veneration for the deity and divine providence.

A propensity to devotion, however, is not in every man compatible with the spirit of philosophy. Dr. Beattie, in pages 63 and 64, relates a story of a dog, which he will not allow to be a proof of that animal being guided by any degree of memory, recollection, or experience. "No," says the doctor, "rather let us say, that here was an interposition of Heaven; who having thought fit to employ the animal as an instrument of this deliverance, was pleased to qualify him for it by a SUPERNATURAL IMPULSE. Lucretius had described those imperfect attempts at barking and running, which dogs are observed to make in their sleep; and supposed, agreeably to the common opinion, that they are the effects of dreaming, and that the animal then supposes himself to be in pursuit of his prey, or attacking an enemy. The theory of Lucretius is perfectly simple and obvious, being analogous to what mankind experience in themselves, in all the different situations and stages of life. But Dr. Beattie, who considers dreaming as an operation above the capacity, and as an enjoyment too sublime for the nature of dogs, supposes that the appearances just now mentioned, may be owing (not to any thing like memory and recollection) but to some mechanical twitches of the nerves and muscles. He allows that the "natural voices of one animal are in some degree intelligible, or convey particular feelings or impulses to others of the same species;" but, animal voices, he maintains, have no analogy with human speech. For men speak by art and imitation, having been taught to do so by their parents. The faculty of speech, he therefore refers immediately to the divine will and power, which conferred it on our first parents.

Every good gift is certainly derived originally from the Father of Lights, but in the works of creation and providence there is a gradual progress, and one thing arises from another. On the Origin of Language, Dr. Beattie might have been instructed by his Fellow Professor in Aberdeen,

Dr.

Dr. Dunbar, who derives, by a very ingenious and clear process of reasoning, all the powers of human speech from a principle of imitation, together with what he calls an *analogical faculty*: a faculty which has vast power in binding the associations of thoughts, and in all the mental arrangements. For there is not, as Dr. Dunbar observes, an object that can present itself to the senses, or to the imagination, which the mind, by its analogical faculty, cannot assimilate to something antecedently in its possession. By consequence, a term already appropriated, and in use, is by no violent transition shaped and adjusted to new ideas.

We have asserted, that Dr. Beattie has in these Essays, betrayed inconsistencies and prejudices. It is necessary to support this charge.

Mr. Hume attempts a description of belief, or that sentiment or feeling which distinguishes truth from falsehood, in hopes, he says, of arriving at some analogies which may afford a more perfect explication of it. He calls it, "A more vivid, lively, forcible, firm, steady conception of an object, than what the imagination alone is ever able to attain; a conception more intense and *steady* than what arises from the mere fictions of the imagination: and, he observes, that this manner of conception arises from a customary conjunction of the object with something present to the memory or senses." But Dr. Beattie, to refute this doctrine, remarks, that he has a livelier idea of some romances, than of real history. This is no refutation of Hume's doctrine: for *during the time* that Dr. Beattie's fancy is warmed, and when he is deeply interested in the adventures of Parson Adams, he does not, (as he affirms) at that instant, believe Parson Adams to be an imaginary character. No! it is only when he lays aside the romance, and returns to that train of thinking, which habitually arises from the concerns of real life, that he is roused from his reverie, and detects the powerful illusion of his captivated fancy. It is, therefore justly, that Mr. Hume, with that accuracy and comprehension which distinguish his writings, defines *belief* to be a *steady conception* of an object. It is thus that *attention* is necessary to belief. And if remembrance, as Dr. Beattie justly observes, will sometimes decay, till it be nothing more than imagination; this is owing to want of attention. Mr. Hume's theory is also strongly confirmed by what Dr. Beattie has observed on the power of attention; a circumstance which doubtless escaped his penetration.

It may perhaps appear trifling to observe, that although our Author is by no means a materialist, he yet talks, after Dr. Gerard of *sublimity expanding the mind*. But there is

no meaning here, unless we consider the mind as corporeal, and capable of being blown up like a bladder, or stretched like a piece of leather.

We have farther to observe, that Dr. Beattie, by way of being more accurate and full than Mr. Hume, reduces the bonds of connection among our ideas to five. Mr. Hume, probably after the example, and on the authority of the philosophers of antiquity, had reduced them to three, *viz.* similitude or dissimilitude; contiguity in time and place; and cause and effect. Dr. Beattie has split the first of these, which is in philosophy but one source of association, into two, and called them *resemblance* and *contrariety*. The second he calls *nearness of situation*, terms by no means so happy and proper as those employed by Mr. Hume. To these he has added another, *custom* or *habit*, which, even according to himself may be properly resolved into *contiguity of time and place*. In other places he affects to depart from the phraseology, and to dispute the tenets of Mr. Hume, and other philosophers, even when the most valuable things in his own, are derived manifestly from hints furnished by their writings. It is thus that he talks of *secondary senses*. In page 525, in a note, this *academick* talks of Mr. Locke with a petulance that absolutely deserves the severest college discipline. On several occasions he omits to quote Mr. Hume and other writers, where their authority would have been respectable and proper: while he is exceedingly forward, on all occasions, to refer the Reader to his own particular friends and partizans, and above all to himself in his former writings. He mentions, for example, by way of eminence, *the Great Historian*; but like the Dutch painter, who wrote underneath his daubings, *this is a cock*, Dr. Beattie is obliged to put the name of Lord Lyttelton on his margin; for without this precaution, it would have been impossible to have conjectured what he meant. See *Dissertations* p. 540. A stranger to modern times, and to that vile stratagem of mutual puffing, which is grown so common among literary juntos, would imagine that all literary merit was confined to Dr. Beattie and his friends: Dr. Gerard, Dr. Campbell, Dr. Hurd, Dr. Porteus, Lord Lyttelton, Mrs. Mountague, and the Authors of the *Monthly Review*.

The observations we have hitherto made, refer in general to the *Dissertations* on Memory and Imagination, on Dreaming, on Language, on the Attachments of Kindred, and on Sublimity of Composition. The first of these goes over part of the ground that the Author, in different essays had appeared on before. The *Dissertation* on Dreaming attempts to shew, that in this operation there is nothing supernatural,
and

and that it is a salutary relaxation to the mind. In regard to the first of these particulars, the Doctor has undertaken a task that seems superfluous; and as to the second, he appears not a little weak and whimsical. The Dissertation on Language, which forms half the volume, may furnish proper lessons for schools, but is not much fitted to support and gratify the curiosity of a philosopher. *The Attachments of Kindred* is a curious subject; but the manner in which it is treated by Dr. Beattie, shews him to be a better critick and practical casuist than an ingenious investigator of the great phenomena of the moral world. In the Essay on Sublimity, as in that on Imagination, we find some good criticism; and, in this performance, it is as a critick that he is chiefly valuable. But what we have farther to observe concerning our Author, must be delayed till the next number of our Review.

ART. II, *The History of the Reign of Philip the Third, King of Spain.*

By Robert Watson, LL. D. Principal of the United College, and Professor of Philosophy and Rhetorick, in the Univerfity of St. Andrews. 4to. 11. 18. boards. Robinson.

(Concluded from our last.)

THE fifth and sixth books of this performance, which amount to about two fifths of it were not written by Dr. Watson. They are the work of a gentleman*, who at the desire of the guardians of Dr. Watson's children, undertook to be the Editor and the continuator of his manuscript. For this information we are indebted to a modest advertisement which he has prefixed to the present volume.

The Editor commences his part of the history of Philip III. with a political consideration, which is equally important and characteristical. He holds out an interesting detail of Spanish pride and ambition. He remarks, that notwithstanding her humiliation, 'the aggrandizement of the House of Austria was still the first object in the councils of Spain.' 'But her power, says he, corresponded not with her inclination; and her pursuit of greatness was sullied by those machinations which are the usual resources of impotent ambition, and which mark a declining empire'. This mixture of ambition and conscious weakness, he represents as the grand principle which actuated the Spanish cabinet throughout the whole extent of the period which it was his province to describe. It was this principle on the part of Spain, which in his opinion roused Henry the Great of France, 'to form such a confederacy as

* Mr. Thomson of Great Ormond Street.

" might

‘ might establish among the nations of Europe a new system, and fix a durable balance of power by the exaltation of other states on the ruins of the House of Austria’. Having unfolded the views of the different powers of which this confederacy was composed, he employs himself to anticipate, as it were, his subject, and to call forth the attention and interest of his Reader.

‘ Europe had not seen military preparations so great’, says he, ‘ or known a juncture apparently so big with revolution. The wealth of Venice, the valour of the Swiss, the impetuosity of the Savoyards, the juvenile ardour of the United Provinces, the active zeal of the Protestant princes and states of Germany, the disciplined bravery of France, the good wishes of all who professed the reformed religion: these, in the hands of a warlike and political prince, formed an engine fitted to subvert kingdoms, and to change the face of the world. The force of the means he possessed, and the grandeur of the end he had in view, were a source of delight to the martial and sanguine disposition of Henry. Sometimes he would take pleasure in reviewing his troops, at others, in trying the arms he designed to wear in the day of battle. He slept but little, was constantly in motion, and conversed much with ministers and officers in whom he most confided. He burned with impatience to exchange the luxury of a palace for the dangers and hardships of the field, and was eager to retaliate on the marquis of Spinola, the advantages that had been gained over himself by the duke of Parma. He had already strengthened the garrisons in his frontier towns; and his troops began to file off in separate divisions towards the general rendezvous at Champagne. He acquainted the archduke Albert at Brussels of his intended march through part of his territories, and desired to be informed whether he should be received as an enemy or as a friend. Nothing detained him in Paris but a desire to be present at the coronation of Mary de Medicis, his queen, whom he had appointed during his absence regent of France.

‘ THE house of Austria, against which this gathering storm was directed, beheld it with astonishing indifference. The emperor, Rhodolphus, more intent on observing the motions of the heavenly bodies, than on watching the movements of his enemies, indulged a natural love of science, the only passion that is able to extinguish the pride of power in the breasts of princes. He had given up, with little reluctance, to his brother Matthias, the government of Hungary, Moravia, and Austria, and soon after he also resigned that of Bohemia. With the title of emperor, he lived a private man. It is matter of greater wonder that the king of Spain, in whom the passion of religion did not eradicate all the seeds of ambition, appeared unconcerned at the warlike preparations of an inveterate enemy. Whether the ministers of Spain trusted to the success of those plots they had formed against Henry in his own palace; or, that with the superstitious credulity of the age in which they lived, they confided in the completion of those predictions that about this time were so frequent in the mouths of Catholics concerning

cerning the sudden death of the king of France *; or that they weakly imagined this monarch had no other object in view than the expulsion of Leopold from the states of Juliers; or from whatever secret cause, it is certain, that amidst a general and anxious suspense, the court of Madrid discovered not any symptoms of alarm. The world, struck with the mighty preparations of France, wondered at the serenity of Spain, when an event happened which proved how much human affairs are governed by causes beyond the reach of princes; which frustrated the well laid designs of the great Henry, and supplied the want of vigilance and wisdom in the counsels of Philip.

The death of the French monarch, and the various effects of this great event being described with a minuteness which perhaps belongs rather to French than to Spanish history, the Editor writes as follows.

‘AFTER the death of Henry, his friends and allies had reason to apprehend that the vindictive passions of the house of Austria would be heightened and inflamed by the hope of gratification. The Italian states especially, overawed by the power of Philip in Naples and in Lombardy, trembled lest the Spanish arms should over-run all Italy. But Charles Emanuel, duke of Savoy, whose noble mind was inspired with the pride rather than the despondency of grief, endeavoured to rally the broken forces of the league, and to unite them once more into a compact and formidable body.

‘THE house of Savoy, one of the most illustrious in Europe on account of its antiquity, is more nobly distinguished for wisdom of policy, and valour of arms. Environed by the dominions of the empire, France, and Spain, the princes of Savoy are under

* This conjecture may appear at first sight, to certain readers, wholly absurd and groundless. Nevertheless it will not seem altogether extravagant, if we reflect on the power of universally received prejudices on even the strongest minds.

About this time, and even long after it, the science of judicial astrology was studied by philosophers of the highest reputation, with great gravity, and, as they firmly believed, with great success. There is in the university of Petersburg, a very able mathematician, who is making great progress in judicial astrology at this very day. It is certain that the duke of Lerma was a firm believer in the doctrines of this science. See *Anecdotes du Ministère du Comte duc D'Olivarez*.

Men of sense, of the present times, struck with that mixture of genius and extravagance which distinguishes the writings of antiquity, are at a loss how to reconcile so much reason with such great extravagance; and suspect that many of the opinions delivered in those writings were not real, but popular and affected. There is not a doubt but posterity will entertain similar doubts concerning some of the doctrines of the seventeenth and even eighteenth century. Men are ever changing their opinions, yet ever wondering that the world did not always think as they do now.

a constant necessity of watching the balance of power among their ambitious neighbours, and of penetrating early into their designs, that, by affording timely support to the weaker against the stronger party, they may be enabled to preserve their own independence. And, if Providence has placed this family in a situation in which it is necessary to guard against the encroachments of superior power; the nature of their country, bold, abrupt, and sublime, inspires that confidence which is necessary effectually to resist them. The fastnesses and narrow defiles of the Alps, together with a hardy race of men inhabiting a mountainous and snowy region, encourage the dukes of Savoy boldly to enter on war, whenever the complexion of the times demonstrates its expedience. Thus natural have conspired with moral causes to form that illustrious character which the race of Savoy has justly obtained in the world.

CHARLES EMANUEL did not disgrace, but, on the contrary, added lustre to the dignity of his birth. Nature, which had formed this prince of a weakly constitution of body, adorned his soul with a splendid variety of talents and virtues; and these the parental care of Philibert, renowned for his victory over the French at St. Quentin, exalted and matured by a learned and liberal education. The writings of antiquity, so full of heroic actions and rapid conquests, nourished the natural ardour of his mind, and inspired an emulation of the ancient heroes of Italy. Together with that intrepidity of spirit which delights in pursuing great designs, he possessed in an eminent degree those qualities which are requisite in order to carry them into execution; political conduct, and military prowess. His courage was not of that calm and equal kind which is connected with firmness of nerves, and which characterizes the warriors of the North. But, being derived from that vigour of imagination, and sensibility of frame peculiar to southern climates, it was ardent and impetuous. His genius also like that of the warmer climates, was fertile even to excess, and prone to subtlety and refinement. From a temper so sanguine, and an imagination so luxuriant, he derived an elasticity of spirit that rose under misfortunes; whence, though sometimes defeated, and often disappointed, he was never discouraged. His resources were endless: for there could not be a conjuncture in which the superiority of his genius could not find some favourable opportunity of practising on the passions, and managing the hopes, and fears, and follies of men. So various were his stratagems of policy and of war, that the most penetrating of his contemporaries professed themselves unable to form any probable conjecture concerning his designs. Something, however, of the vast and unbounded characterized his conduct, the ardour of his inventive genius, engaging him not unfrequently in projects beyond his utmost power to accomplish. Nor were the powers of his capacious mind wholly absorbed in schemes of ambition. Whatever was elegant or great touched his soul, and he was prone to the pleasures of society and love. He was a friend to men of letters, a patron of all the arts, an enthusiastic admirer and bountiful rewarder of merit of every kind. And the greatness of his mind was so happily tempered with benignity and grace, that the engaging

engaging affability of his noble deportment alleviated in the breasts of his subjects the hardships which they suffered through his restless ambition. On the whole, it is difficult to conceive that qualities so opposite should co-exist in the same person: so great boldness with such deep design; such loftiness of spirit, with such sweetness of demeanour; such ardour of mind with so much subtilty, and such profound dissimulation.*

The Spanish nation sought to conceal its weakness under the cover of authority and antient renown; and to promote its greatness by intrigue and negociation. But Charles Emanuel obliged her to quit that cover, and to prove her strength or weakness in the field of battle. A war arose in Italy, in which the Spaniards, the Austrians, and Uscocchi were opposed by the Duke of Savoy, and the Venetians; the Duke being occasionally assisted by the troops of France, and the Republic by those of the United Provinces. A wide field of story was thus opened; and the Editor traverses it with the skill of a master. Among other incidents he describes the famous conspiracy against Venice; and after it was defeated he relieves the attention of the Reader from the uniformity of continued narration by a digression concerning that compass of military and political ability, 'which at once adorned and disgraced the feeble reign of Philip III.' This is the only digression in the two last books of this volume†.

The order of time now conducts the Editor to the downfall of the Duke of Lerma. He takes an exact view of the conduct of that minister, with regard to the internal policy of Spain. With regard to the intrigues of the Court of Spain on this subject, he has remarked several curious particulars in the nature of man, and furnished an account of the rise and

* In this singular character there is not a trait unsupported by the testimony of cotemporary historians, who, all of them, mention this prince with an admiration which could not have been excited but by the most amazing talents. See *Bellum Sabaudicum*, &c. *Alfonso Loschi*; *Battistia Nani*; *Siri Memoire recon dite*; *Le Mercure François*, *Histoire de la Regence de Marie de Medicis*, &c. &c.

† In this digression the Editor appeals to a book which was lately published at Madrid, and is little known in this country. The Author to whom we allude is *Johannes Genesius Sepulveda de Rebus gestis Caroli V.* It is remarkable that the works of this writer, which give very opposite views concerning Charles V. and America from those exhibited by Dr. Robertson, were published by order of the Court of Madrid. At the same time, that Court prohibited the sale of Dr. Robertson's books in their Colonies, from the apprehension that his apology for the cruelties of Spain would engender jealousies, and the spirit of revolt.

fall of Don Roderigo de Calderona, Count of Oliva, which is well painted and affecting.

Soon after the disgrace of Lerma, the count of Oliva was arrested by order of the king, and thrown into prison, where he languished for the space of two years. His rise from so low a station to so great a height of power gave birth to an opinion that he was a forcerer, which his enemies were at great pains to propagate. He was charged with having poisoned the queen, who died in 1612; a charge as improbable in itself, as it was found to be unsupported by any evidence; for Don Roderigo stood as high in the favour of that princess as the Duke of Lerma did in the affections of the king. Many other groundless accusations were brought against him: but at last he was found guilty of having been accessory to the murder of two Spanish gentlemen: a matter which, according to some historians, was never clearly proved; he was however condemned to death, and his estate was confiscated. The evidence on which he was convicted was not direct, but circumstantial; and if we may judge from some of the circumstances left on record, as the principal ground of his condemnation, we may infer, that the deficiency of the proof was supplied by the zeal of both his accusers and judges. The trial and confinement of Calderona were prolonged for two years and six months; a measure calculated to keep alive the general odium against his patron the Duke of Lerma, and to prevent the return of that ancient favourite to court, of which the new ministry were not a little apprehensive. During all the time that Calderona lay in prison, there was not one among the multitudes he had obliged, except the cardinal Don Gabriel de Trejo, whose name deserves to be recorded, nephew to the countess his lady, who had the humanity and the courage to attempt his relief, or to afford him any comfort. The cardinal was no sooner informed of the imprisonment of Calderona, than, impelled by a generous gratitude, he set out from Rome to pay his respects to his patron in a dungeon, and determined to move every engine that his utmost efforts could command in order to release him. But the cardinal was neither permitted to visit the court nor the prison. He lingered, however, a long time in Spain, in anxious hopes of finding some fortunate occasion of saving his friend; but, on the death of pope Paul V. which happened in February 1621, he returned, by order of the king, to Rome.

DON RODERIGO bore confinement, solitude, and torture, with incredible patience. After his doom was fixed, he was visited, at his own earnest desire, by the ministers of religion. His great soul, which had braved all the rage of his enemies with such singular constancy, discovered, on the approach of death, a nobler heroism in the most perfect resignation to the will of God; and in the most candid confession, and sincerest contrition for the errors of his life. The ardour of his mind was now displayed in the severities of self-mortification. He was covered with hair cloth: he watched and prayed night and day: he afflicted himself with fasting, and with stripes; and, had not his confessor interposed, he would, in all probability, have anticipated the stroke of the executioner, by

an excess of voluntary pain. On the 19th day of October, 1621, the first year of the reign of Philip IV. he received intimation, that within two days he should die. He received the messenger of this welcome news with a cheerful countenance, and tenderly embraced him. He now abstained from sleep and food, and spent his time in acts of devotion. About eleven of the clock on the 21st of October, he came to the door of the prison, encompassed by the officers of justice. Affliction had softened the natural dignity of his looks and mien: and his grey hairs, his beard, and his dress, suited to the present sad occasion, conspired with the expression of his countenance to impress the spectators with sentiments of veneration and love. He yet possessed sufficient strength to mount on a mule that waited for him at the prison. This he did with great tranquillity, and passed through the streets to the place of execution, embracing and adoring a crucifix which he held in his hands, amidst the tears and lamentations of the surrounding multitude. The executioner held the reins of the mule, and, as he went along, proclaimed aloud the following words: "This is the judgment, which, by the orders of our sovereign lord the king, is inflicted on this man for his having been the instigator of an assassination; and accessory to another murder; and divers other crimes which appeared on his trial: for all of which he is to be beheaded, as a punishment to him, and a warning to others." Having arrived at the scaffold, the resigned sufferer beheld with a serene countenance the instruments of his approaching death; the chair, the sword, and the man whose office it was to use it. He conversed, for some time, with his confessor and other divines. And, having been received into the bosom of the church, he took leave of his attendants, and sat down on the seat from which he was never to rise. Before his hands and his feet were made fast, he made a present to the executioner, and twice embraced the man, who was bathed in tears, as a token that he bore him not any ill will on account of the office he was about to perform. Then, making bare his neck, he yielded his limbs to be bound, with the utmost composure. The instant this operation was performed, he reclined himself backwards*, and while he was in the act of recommending his soul to God, his head was in a moment severed from his body. As the last impressions are commonly the strongest, men forgave and forgot the imperiousness of his former conduct and behaviour, and thought and spoke only of that mixture of humility and fortitude, that patience and piety, which he displayed in the last stage of his life.

The Editor pursuing his plan of tracing the effects of Spanish ambition, goes on in this manner.

'THE counsels of Spain had, for many years, been distinguished by a singular union of a desire of power, with a love of peace: but it was found impossible to gratify at once those opposite passions. The intrigues of ambition excited the violence of arms. The commotions of Italy were followed by those of Germany. A war

* In Spain, traitors alone are beheaded with their faces downwards. The Spanish word, is *degollar*, *couper la gorge*. The executioner performs his office face to face with the sufferer.

was kindled, the most signal and destructive in modern annals. Famine and pestilence succeeded to the destroying sword, and the direful power of hunger equally overcame the strongest antipathies, and violated the tenderest affections of nature: so bloody was that tragedy which concluded so happily for the liberties of Europe, in the famous peace of Westphalia!

He gives an account of the Austrian family compact. This compact excited a dissatisfaction among the protestant princes of Germany. But in Bohemia, a country distinguished by religious zeal, the jealousy kindled by it was so fierce, that it broke out into a civil war. As the resistance of the Bohemians is traced to religious zeal, an account is given of the origin and progress of the reformation. The Emperors Matthias and Ferdinand endeavoured to appease the fury and to reclaim the obedience of their revolted subjects by gentle language, by offers of indemnity, and by various concessions. These, however, like those of Britain to America, being considered as proofs of impotence rather than of favour, inflamed the ferments they were intended to compose. A war of pamphlets and controversy ensued; but an appeal was quickly made to the sword. The courage of the Bohemians was confirmed by the successful struggle of the United Provinces, and by other instances of a fortunate resistance against the ambition of the House of Austria; 'and the contagion of example,' as the Editor remarks, 'which more than reason governs the world, displayed its full force on this important occasion.' The standard of rebellion was lifted in Bohemia, and a general insurrection took place in all the Austrian dominions. In this extremity the native courage of the Emperor was supported by the treasures, the arms, and the authority of Spain. After many skirmishes, a battle was fought at Prague; the issue of which restored to Ferdinand the crown of Bohemia, and rendered the power of Austria over that kingdom more absolute than ever. It is impossible for an English reader to contemplate this action with all its circumstances, without contrasting the conduct of the Imperial and Spanish commanders with that of the British generals in the late war with America.

'The Wisemburg, or White Hill, is of no great height or circumference, but, being cut and broken by crags and deep ravines, it is of difficult access, except on that side which looks towards Prague, where an inclined plane, of equal fertility and beauty, extends from its summit to the walls of the city. The lower part of this declining space was covered with a range of houses, or rather a straggling village, which formed part of the suburbs of Prague; the middlemost was an extensive park, adorned with a wood, and a royal palace, called the Star; the higher overlooked, and in many places

places commanded the capital. In this strong position, the Bohemian general drew up his forces, and here he determined to abide the assault of the enemy. The various projections and incurvations of the hill, improved by art, seemed to defy the boldest assailants. And that the men might not be tempted to abandon so advantageous a station, Anhalt ordered the gates of the city to be shut, and signified what he had done, to every division of the army. Having taken this precaution, he ranged his troops in order of battle, and waited the approach of the enemy.

THE Imperialists, who had by this time advanced within half a league of Prague, were struck with the advantageous situation of the Bohemians, and deliberated, whether or no they should give them battle. But the advanced season would not permit them much longer to keep the field: and in the spring, thirty thousand Turks, would be added to the number of their enemies. All the friends of Ferdinand had already taken an active part in his cause, and his whole force was now in exertion. The powers, on the other hand, that formed the natural allies of Frederic, from causes that could not be permanent, stood many of them aloof, as if indifferent to his fortune, but would assuredly join in support of his cause, if the sovereign authority should be confirmed by length of time, as well as by actual possession. In many cases it was more prudent to guard against disaster than to run any great risque for the sake of victory. But in cases of rebellion there was not room for delay, for the loss of time was equal to misfortune in the field of battle. The enemy was, indeed, strongly posted: but the fate of battles depended on accidents, not to be foreseen by human prudence; and the steady valour of the Imperialists, was more likely to bear up under any unforeseen and adverse circumstance, than the tumultuous courage of the undisciplined Bohemians. There was yet another consideration, which, of all others, had the greatest weight in the present question. The sermons of father Dominico, a bare-footed Carmelite, who assured the army that the Lord of Hosts would go forth with their standard in his own cause, had infused into the soldiers an impatient ardour to charge the heretics: so important, in those days, was the office of a military chaplain! On the whole, it was resolved to storm the hill: the troops were formed in order of battle; the Imperialists on the right hand, and the Bavarians on the left. They advanced upon the enemy by the way of Stratzis, the only way that was practicable. Pursuing this course, they were obliged to march in a file over a bridge, and then, before they should arrive at the bottom of the Wisenberg, a miry valley. The younger Anhalt, son of the general, perceived the advantage to be derived from this embarrassing situation, and was all on fire to improve it. He proposed, after allowing such numbers of the Imperialists to pass over the bridge as should greatly weaken the main body of the army on the other side, to attack them before they should be formed, and while struggling with the difficulties of marshy ground. This plan of young Anhalt, which was not less prudent than courageous, appeared to Hollach, the lieutenant-general, the effect of youthful impetuosity. The Imperialists were allowed to extricate themselves from their embarrassment, without

without any other inconvenience than what they suffered from the Bohemian artillery. In order to avoid this, they hastened their march, until the prominences of the hill afforded them protection. Then, having put themselves in the best order that the time and the nature of the ground would admit, they pressed up the Wisemborg with deliberate valour, and made a furious attack upon the enemy. The shouting of the soldiers, the noise of trumpets and drums, and the roaring of artillery, reverberated from the inflexions and cavities of the hill, announced the commencement of the important onset, and shook the country for many leagues around with terror. Prague, as being nearer to the dreadful scene, was more sensibly struck with its horrors, and trembled in awful expectation of the eventful issue. Frederic, on whose account the contending armies profusely shed their blood, beheld from the battlements of his palace, on the one hand the spacious capital of Bohemia, and on the other the fierce engagement that was to dispose of the Bohemian crown. At the beginning of the conflict, fortune seemed to smile on the Bohemians; for young Anhalt, supported by count Slich, repulsed with great slaughter the first assault. This assault was made by count Tilly, lieutenant-general to the duke of Bavaria. But the veteran troops, which formed the strength of the Imperial army, sustained this disaster with that firmness which results from discipline, and a glorious reputation. On this occasion the wounded Bucquoy signalized his own spirit, and re-animated the hearts of the fearful. He had been carried in a litter to his tent in the camp, there to wait the event of the action. But he no sooner saw the Imperialists hardly pressed by the Bohemians, than he jumped out of his carriage, and feverish as he was, mounted the first horse he found, put himself at the head of his troops, and attacked the Hungarians with such fury, that he left near two thousand, as was computed, dead on the spot. The Walloons, commanded by William Verdugo, next to Bucquoy, had the honour of restoring the battle. They took young Anhalt and count Slich prisoners, and having made themselves masters of a redoubt, with three pieces of cannon, turned the artillery with prodigious effect against the thick squadrons of the enemy. The panic that was struck among undisciplined troops, by this sudden reverse of fortune; the fright and confusion that had taken place among the Hungarian cavalry, from the yelling of the Cossacks; together with a steady and unremitted fire both of cannon and musquetry, in spite of the exhortations, the threats, and the example of the generals and other officers, threw the whole Bohemian army into irrecoverable disorder and terror. A general rout ensued. All was lost, but the honour of having made a brave resistance. Anhalt, having first dispatched a message to the Palatine, provided for his own safety. The regiment of count Thorn was the last that quitted the field. The Wisemborg was covered with the arms of the fugitives, and the bodies of the slain. Multitudes seeking to escape from the edge of the sword, perished in the Mulda. Five thousand Bohemians, that had been posted in the Star Park, threw down their arms, and cast themselves upon the clemency of the victors. The generals were willing to give them quarter; but the Cossacks re-

maining equally deaf to the orders of the commander, and to the cries of the flying victims, sheathed the sword only when the arm was weary with shedding blood.'

Among the fortunate events of the year 1620, the Editor observes, there may also be ranked the preservation of Naples from the attempts of that singular genius, the Duke of Ossuna. But those brilliant successes were unable to dispel the melancholy which had taken possession of Philip III. and a journey which he made to Portugal being attended with no beneficial effect, he died in the month of March 1621. His death is related by the Editor with an affecting minuteness; and his information about it is chiefly gathered from private letters to Count Gondomar, the Spanish ambassador at the court of London, which were found among Dr. Birch's collections in the British Museum. The sickness and character of this prince are ably drawn by the Editor; and the volume concludes with a short review of the transactions of his reign.

From the analysis which we have given of this volume, and from the extracts which we have laid before our readers, they will easily perceive, that it is a work of utility and consequence. The abilities of Dr. Watson, and of his continuator, are very considerable, and deserve commendation. The public is already sufficiently acquainted with the former writer, and have bestowed upon him the sanction of their praise. The other writer is less known at present: but if we were to compare their respective talents, we should upon the whole, perhaps, find it consistent with candour and criticism to allow him the superiority. His style is not indeed so simple as that of Dr. Watson; but it is more vigorous. His regard for truth and the honour of history is not less. His learning appears to be greater; and he is certainly more versant in affairs, and more successful in painting characters, and the progress of society and civilization.

ART. III. *A Letter to Richard Lord Bishop of Landaff, on the Subject of his Lordship's Letter to the late Archbishop of Canterbury.* By Richard Cumberland. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly and Walter.

WE do not arrogate to ourselves the gift of prophecy from having foretold that the Bishop of Landaff, in standing forth as a reformer, was to expose himself to obloquy of every kind: that his character as a *man* was to be attacked, and his abilities as a *reformer* depreciated. Such has been, such is, and such will ever be the case. A reformer has to encounter the strength of habit, the virulence of prejudice, with the jealousy, vigilance and activity of self-interest. Even acquiescent indolence rouses at the sound of innovation, and considers it as inimical to its darling repose. Unappalled by this formidable perspective, his Lordship has ventured
to

to occupy the dangerous post, which we doubt not he will maintain with courage and ability.

His present antagonist enters the field mangled and bruised by the ponderous hands of state reformers; no wonder then that he should recoil with horror at the very idea of reformation, especially in the church; to serve whom (*in her present state*) he considers as infinitely preferable to the service of royalty. As a proof of this we shall produce the "feeling exclamation" of this placeman *reformé*, towards the end of his pamphlet,

"Had I but served *the church* with half the zeal
I serv'd my King, it would not in mine age
Have left me naked*."

He, peradventure, imagines, that this nursing-mother would have bestowed on him a Deanery or Prebend at least, dignities to which he has given the appellation of "stimulatives to excellence," and against the mutilation of which he has so violently exclaimed. Or, perhaps, he may yet aspire to them; but on this head the letter writer has been silent: all that we can therefore offer must be mere analogical conjecture.

Mr. Cumberland's publication is sufficiently spirited, but the *sock* is too predominant: and the candid mind will be displeased with its petulance and personality, with the unfairness of much of the argument, and with the malignity of the innuendo it contains. The Author sets out with examining the *motives* of the Bishop's letter to his Grace of Canterbury. These he reprobates without mercy. Instead of appealing in the first instance to the public, Mr. Cumberland is of opinion that he should previously have consulted the primate and his brethren of the bench; and that, instead of producing his intended reform at the time when he himself had become a Bishop, he ought to have given it to the world while he was yet a private clergyman. The arguments on each side are yet before the public, which will pronounce its award. We cannot however dismiss this part of the subject, without offering it as our opinion, notwithstanding the invidious term which the letter-writer has given to the Bishop's mode of procedure, that to submit to the public judgment a plan of general importance, is by no means a mark of sinister views.

With regard to the *matter* of his Lordship's publication, this opponent does not approve of equalizing the profits of the fees, and rendering the Bishops in some measure stationary in their dioceses; first, Because the incomes of the

* We are informed that Mr. C. is not left quite *naked*, but that he is *clothed* by government with 700l. per annum. Thousands of poor clergymen would think themselves rich if they possessed only the seventh part of his nakedness,

poorer Bishops may be eked out with "*commendams* without "*cure of souls, care of education, or superintendence of discipline.*" But, would it not be better if, according to the Bishop's plan, they had no *commendams* at all; and that the benefices which are generally given them on that footing, should circulate among the inferior clergy? His second objection is, That if bishops "pay too great attention to the "beck of a minister," there is likewise "a species of partiality attachment, arising from the partiality of gratitude to patrons and benefactors," which perhaps equally draws their attention. The plain English of this is, that bishops vote sometimes with the minister against their conscience; that they sometimes, with equal criminality, vote against him from the partiality of gratitude to patrons and benefactors. This is certainly a singular argument against his lordship's intended reform, which proposes, by giving independency to the bench, to leave no room, as far as political institutions can accomplish the matter, for bias, or undue influence of any kind. Thirdly, he objects to the plan, because it is doubtful whether, by the proposed reform, bishops would be induced to more constant residence, because, if they did more constantly reside, being deprived of emulation, and every spur to exertion, they would become "a swarm of "drones; and whether they sleep within or without the "pale of their own diocese, will be a matter of small concern." But sleep they must he assures us, for when "a "man is at the end of his race—he sinks into the languor "of content, or rusts in fullness and negligence." If this be generally true, what a number of sleepy, languid, sullen, or negligent Archbishops of Canterbury must we have had since the reformation, to go no farther back. The last argument which he employs on this head is, that the now wealthy bishops neither could nor would so well "maintain and improve their places of residence upon a reduced "income as upon an extended one." Probably not; perhaps some of them would be neglected: would the evil be enormous if they were? or is it necessary that bishops should have what he calls "pluralities of stately palaces?" By way of counterpoise to this objection, might we not alledge that the extended income of the poorer bishops would make them both able and willing to maintain and improve their places of residence?

We shall now present our readers with an extract from this part of the work, as a specimen of Mr. Cumberland's raillery, and next consider what he has said on deans and chapters, and on the inferior clergy.

'Glowing as your lordship's bosom must be with all the conscious exultation of superior virtue, and with a just contempt for that mean

mean character, which you emphatically stile the *secularity* of Bishops, I rather wonder that your zeal for purifying and reforming the bench did not publicly shew itself before you took your seat upon it, that so you might have entered as the *strong man* does in the parable, and found *your house ready swept and garnished*. Surely it stood in as much need of sweeping before your consecration, as it does since; nay, we might justly doubt, if it did not stand in more need, as we have your lordship's own authority for knowing, that one of the most incorrupt and independent men living, fills one of the least eligible bishopricks in the whole list, and consequently one of the most obnoxious to the temptation of a remove. If any bishop on the bench might be betrayed into a wish for a translation, the bishopric of Landaff, in any other hands than your lordship's, is the very see where such a man would be looked for. If it should ever enter into the head of a minister to lure the conscience of a spiritual lord by the hope of a translation, such a minister would be as likely to apply his temptations to the possessor of Landaff (*cæteris paribus*) as to any bishop on the bench. Nay, I should suspect, even if your bill takes place, and *this little change*, as your lordship calls it, in the church establishment is effected, that the bishop of Landaff, though made equal in revenue to London, Winchester, Salisbury, or Ely, might still have a preference to one of those situations, and not be proof against the allurements of a translation. The comforts of a good house at Fulham, Chelsea, or London, the splendors of a stately cathedral, choirs, altars, thrones, even the insignia of the Garter appending to his person, might conspire to draw off his attachment from his little humble hovel amongst the mountains of Wales, to the greater indulgencies, as well as dignities, of the capital or its vicinity.

Whilst you, my lord, maintain the post of temptation, let the tempter attack you if he dare. Long, very long, therefore, may it remain in your firm possession; For if the great seducer of mankind, if Satan, who probably takes more joy in the seduction of a bishop than of any common man, and who is also more apt to take the form of a minister than of any other man, should be *beckoning* to some future bishop of Landaff, and pointing to the dome of Paul's, or spire of Salisbury, I own I tremble for the virtue of your successor. I am clear therefore that the best thing which can happen will be for your lordship to hold inflexibly to your station, unless you could level the churches and palaces, as well as the patronages and revenues; unless you can frame your bill for *making the rough ways smooth, and the crooked paths straight*, and bring the now distant mountains of Wales to a proximity with Chelsea and Fulham. But as this may not be possible even for a *levelling act* to effect, you have still the resource *in petto* of bringing Mahomet to the mountain; and, if I was worthy to suggest an amendment to your bill, it should be for a clause to direct the building of a decent row of tenements, in the fashion of bettermost alms-houses, in some convenient spot, in a cheap county, where the bishops shall be lodged, the said lots and tenements to be exactly equal in dimension and convenience:—That these shall be furnished and appointed at the public charge, with the like critical equality, and every occupier to be

be under a disability of adding to or improving his particular lot or tenement, so as the same shall be made in any respect preferable to or different from those of his neighbours and brethren:—That as some dioceses are more distant and of greater extent than others, and as the well known zeal of the bishops may lead them to prefer those of great labour to such in which the duty is more light, there shall be a regulation of circuits after the manner of the judges, in which the senior bishops shall be gratified with the more laborious visitations to their share, as an example whereby to animate their younger brethren, and tending to the edification of the whole Christian world:—That the visitation circuit of *Sedar and Man*, as being attended with more fatigue and danger than any other, shall be the apostolical privilege of the archbishop of Canterbury.’

With respect to the deaneries, canonries, prebends, &c. all that Mr. Cumberland has to say for them is that they are “stimulatives to excellence”—be it so—but, if the necessities of the inferior clergy call aloud for assistance, if we can see no prospect of help from any other quarter, where is the heinous crime of taking a portion of the *emoluments* of these stimulatives, while the whole of the *honour* is allowed to remain? Must the clergy of the English establishment be pricked on to erudition and excellence by so very high rewards*? The dissenters, the Scotch and Dutch clergy have none of these excitements; yet they are not deficient either in erudition or moral excellence. We beg pardon for mentioning a set of men that are without the pale of the hierarchy with any degree of approbation, as the letter writer has already taken his lordship of Landaff to task for a *faux pas* of the same kind. We therefore drop the subject, and shall only add that, after the perpetration of this atrocious crime of reduction, there would still remain sufficient stimulatives to excellence. But without this, or something equally effectual be done, the greater number of the parochial clergy must continue poor, neglected, and despised; while religion suffers in a thousand ways by the poverty of the preacher. What may hereafter be done to remedy this evil, or when the radical cure will be discovered we know not: that the palliatives hitherto applied have not been efficacious, is but too clearly evinced by the state of the inferior clergy at this day. But Mr. Cumberland informs us that “the funds of the church applicable to the augmentation of poor livings I do contend are sufficient to augment those livings without reduction of its dignities, in a much less compass of time than the calculations you refer to, and greatly sooner than men in

* Are their mental and moral faculties so languid that they must be roused to energy by such powerful stimulatives? Or does Mr. Cumberland mean this as an eulogy on the church?

“ general are aware of.” We are glad to hear this ; and we doubt not that the bishop of Landaff will have no objection to relinquish his scheme when this shall be fully and clearly proved. But, if we are to judge of the future by the past, our expectations will not be over sanguine. Unless Mr. Cumberland can force the corporation, in which the revenues of the first-fruits and tenths are vested, to unveil the mystery that he alledges covers their proceedings, we see no chance of any alteration for the better. It is, if we are to believe him, a mystery of iniquity ; why then load the Bishop of Landaff with so much sarcasm and reproach, when we are informed by Mr. Cumberland himself, that his lordship’s publication has a direct tendency to bring this dark matter to light ? “ though it is probable your lordship’s publication will not exactly produce the ends proposed, yet it is likely to be followed by consequences that will bring to light these *arcana* of the church.”

Towards the conclusion of the letter the bishop’s antagonist becomes perfectly mystical and prophetic.

‘ If I am,’ says he, ‘ well informed, there is an egg in the nest, and one is brooding it, who will hatch a cockatrice : the time may be at hand when your lordship, with the rest of your brethren, may fly to your nursing-father the King, the supreme head of the church, and seek protection under that fostering influence which you now arraign.’

As this is far above our comprehension, we present it to the public without comment or explanation.

We have now gone through the main scope of this letter. The performance contains some argument and wit, but cavil and misrepresentation are its predominant features. An instance or two of these latter, and we have done. The bishop argues, that the zeal of the clergy for the establishment cannot spring from interested motives, because their professional income is smaller than that of any set of men in the same rank of life with themselves ; and that, were they to apply their money and talents in any other way, they would find their worldly circumstances bettered. “ If there was no establishment (says he) those who are now bred to the church would apply their money some other way, to the advantage of themselves and families.” This simple and inoffensive proposition becomes in the plastic hands of Mr. Cumberland “ a deep and deadly blow” levelled against the bosom of the church. His lordship is represented as asserting, that our ecclesiastical establishment, with all its accompaniments is a very useless piece of lumber.

‘ This is an assertion, my lord, for which the clergy will not thank you, such of their number at least who have a zeal for their religion ; for if they could thrive so well in the liberal professions without an established

established church, it should seem as if your lordship admitted that the liberal professions, and of course the state in general, were not dependant upon that establishment for their prosperity; in fewer words, you assert that the state could exist and flourish without the church, a doctrine rather novel for a member of the right reverend bench.'

The following plain and obvious truth in the bishop's pamphlet is treated in the same manner. His lordship had said that the rewards which attend success in the law are more permanent and substantial than the highest rewards that churchmen can aspire to, and that this inequality of reward is not owing to the inferior talents or understanding of the clergy, but merely to professional disadvantages. There is "no presumption (says he) in supposing that men brought up to the church have as sound understandings as those who are brought up to the bar," and "that an exertion of the same talents which serve to place a man on the bench of bishops, might have placed him on the bench of judges, and the genius of an archbishop might have raised him to the dignity of a lord high chancellor." A considerable degree of a certain kind of ingenuity was requisite for the perversion of this passage: but the letter-writer appears to excel in this species of ingenuity. The worthy prelate is made to say, that all those clergymen who had attained the lawn, owed their elevation neither to the irreproachability of their morals, nor their exemplary piety, but, amongst other things, to what constitutes, perhaps, the least shining part of the lawyer's character, viz. adroitness in making the best of a bad cause.

'This is another allegation, I conceive, for which your brethren, and the religion they profess, will have no cause to thank you; it is to be hoped that some bishops have been elevated to that order by the purity of their morals, and the exemplariness of their piety; I have not hitherto understood that these are requisites to the promotion of a lawyer: an acuteness of talents, and an adroitness in defending either side of a cause, or even making the best of a bad one, are recommendations at the bar, but I did not know they were so considered in the pulpit.'

The next extract that we are about to communicate to the public is one of the strongest instances of a rage for cavil that we have any where met with.

'In your next paragraph you admonish his Grace of Canterbury not to let the *mere term innovation* alarm him, or as your lordship more fully expresses it, *alarm his apprehension*; that if such was the tendency of your proposals, you would have thrown them and your pen into the fire.—I beg your lordship's pardon for reversing the order of your expression in this quotation, for though you are pleased to declare that you *would have thrown your pen first and your proposals after it*, it would perhaps have been a more natural course to have destroyed the work first and the tool afterwards, as it is not altogether so clear how you would have written the proposals after you had burnt your pen.'

If Mr. Cumberland will reflect that the proposals are considered as *already* written, that no proposals can be thrown into the fire *before* they are written, and that when they *are* written, it is a matter of perfect indifference whether the pen, or the proposals be first committed to the flames, we are in hopes that his doubts and anxieties about this matter will be at an end; and that perhaps he will not think it *essentially necessary* that the above passage should make its appearance in any future edition of his pamphlet.

ART. IV. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, Vol. LXXII. for 1782. Part. I. 4to. L. Davis.

(Continued from our Review for April.)

WE now proceed to the two important papers which close the present volume.

Art. 14. *Continuation of the Experiments and Observations on the specific gravities and attractive powers of various saline substances.* By Richard Kirwan, Esq. F. R. S.

The first pages are taken up with the correction of some errors in the preceding part of this paper, which was published in a former volume of the Transactions, and being of a date prior to that of our Review, was not noticed in it. We shall therefore pass these corrections over, and begin with the new experiments, made in prosecution of the subject.

To ascertain the quantity of the constituent parts of compounds, one of the chief objects of our Author's attention, was a vain attempt, before chymists were familiarized with elastic fluids. The proportion of alkali in any neutral salt, must have unavoidably been over-rated, when no account was taken of the fixed air expelled by a more powerful acid. And the same may be said of every analysis of a like nature. It is even now, in the present enlightened state of the science, a very nice enquiry, and it will be found; that those who hold the discoveries of Dr. Black and his followers in view, seldom agree in the respective quantities of the ingredients contained in compounds. To prove this, it is only necessary to refer to the analysis of Mr. Lavoisier, Professor Bergman, and our Author.

In our account of this article, it will be best, first to give the results of the experiments, and then consider two very interesting digressions on the nature of phlogiston and fixed air, which are introduced in the course of it.

Of pure mineral alkali, 100 grs. required 60 or 61 grs. of mere vitriolic acid (vitriolic acid independent of the water that adheres to it) to saturate them. Of perfectly dry Glauber's salt, 100 grs. contain 29,12 of mere vitriolic acid,

48,6

48,6 of mere alkali, and 22,28 of water; but 100 grs. of this salt crystallized contains 13,19 of acid, 21,87 of alkali, and 64,94 of water.

Dry cubic nitre contains in 100 grs. 30 of acid, 52,18 of alkali, and 17,82 of water; 100 grs. of the crystallized salt contain something more water.

In 100 grs. of dry common salt there are 35 of real acid, 53 of alkali, and 13 of water, and in 100 grs. of the chrytals there are 35,3 of acid, 50 of alkali, and 16,7 of water.

In 100 grs. of crystallized fossil alkali, there are 35 of alkali, 20 of fixed air, and 45 of water.

This proportion differs widely from that given by Bergman and Lavoisier, according to whom 100 grs. of this alkali take up 80 of fixed air. This difference Mr. Kirwan attributes to their having used soda recently crystallized.

The specific gravity of the crystallized mineral alkali weighed in æther was 1,421.

The experiments on volatile alkali were made with that salt in an aerial form, there being no other way of obtaining it free from water, on account of its volatility. The Author found that 100 grs. of pure volatile alkali, take up 134 of fixed air, and that in a concrete state 100 grs. contain 53 of fixed air, 39,47 of real alkali and 7,53 of water. 100 grs. of pure alkali take up 106 of vitriolic, 115 of nitrous, and 130 of the marine acid.

The specific gravity when in a concrete form and weighed in æther is 1,4076.

The Author could not ascertain the quantity of water in the ammoniacal salts, but thinks it very small, since volatile alkali and the aerial acid cryastllize, when both are in an aerial state, without the help of water.

In natural gypsum the proportion of the ingredients varies, 100 grs. containing from 32 to 34 of both acid and earth, and from 26 to 32 of water: the artificial, 32 of earth 29,44 of acid and 38,56 of water *per cent.*

100 grs. of nitrous selenite carefully dried contains 33,28 of acid, 32 of earth and 34,72 of water.

100 grs. of marine selenite well dried, but so as not to dissipate any of the acid, contain 42,56 of acid, 38 of earth and 19,44 of water.

Of pure magnesia 100 grs. take up 125 of vitriolic, 132 of nitrous and 140 of marine acid. In 100 grs. of dry Epsom salt there are 45,67 of acid, 36,54 of earth and 17,83 of water. In the crystallized, there are 23,75 of acid, 19 of earth and 57,25 of water.

Of nitrous Epsom salt, well dried, 100 grs. contain 35,64 of acid, 27 of earth, and 37,36 of water.

In

In marine Epsom salt the proportion of the ingredients could not be ascertained on account of the dissipation of the acid by heat.

Of dry allum 100 grs. contain 42,74 of acid, 32,14 of earth, and 25,02 of water; of the crystallized 23,94 of acid, 18 of earth and 58,06 of water.

100 grs. of pure clay take up 153 of nitrous, and 173,45 of marine acid, but from some particular circumstances, the Author could not be perfectly accurate in his experiments.

The specific gravity of clay containing 25 *pr. cent.* of fixed air is 1,9901.

Of *nitrous air* 100 grs. contain 16,792 of phlogiston, and 83,208 of acid.

Of fixed air 100 grs. contain 14,661 of phlogiston, and 85,339 of elementary air.

Of vitriolic air 100 grs. contain 8,48 grs. of phlogiston, and 91,52 of acid.

Of sulphur 100 grs. contain 40,61 of phlogiston, and 59,39 of vitriolic acid. A proportion of the former ingredient far exceeding that assigned by preceding chemists, but their analyses were made under the disadvantage pointed out at the beginning of this article.

As a specimen of the Author's mode of investigation, we shall transcribe the concluding paragraph.

‘ OF THE QUANTITY OF PHLOGISTON IN MARINE ACID AIR.

‘ 8 gr. of copper dissolved in colourless spirit of salt afforded but 4,9 cubic inches of air, when the air was received over water, and this air was inflammable.

‘ 8,5 gr. of copper being dissolved in the same quantity of the same spirit of salt, and the air received over mercury, afforded 91,28 cubic inches of air; but of these only 4,9 cubic inches were inflammable air; the remainder, therefore, *viz.* 86,38 were marine air, which weigh 56,49 gr.

‘ Now, as spirit of salt certainly does not dephlogistate copper more than the vitriolic acid does, it follows, that these 4,9 cubic inches of inflammable air, and 86,38 cubic inches of marine air, do not contain more phlogiston than would be separated from the same quantity of copper by the vitriolic acid: and since 100 grains of copper would yield to the vitriolic acid 4,32 gr. of phlogiston, 8,5 gr. of copper would yield 0,367 of a grain of phlogiston; this then is the whole quantity extracted by the marine acid, and contained in 91,28 cubic inches of air, and deducting from this the quantity of phlogiston contained in 4,9 cubic inches of inflammable air ($= 0,171$ of a grain), the remainder, *viz.* $0,367 - 0,171 = 0,196$ is all the phlogiston that can be found in 86,38 cubic inches of marine air. Then 100 cubic inches of marine air can contain but 0,227 nearly of a grain of phlogiston 65,173 of acid.

‘ Hence we see why it acts so feebly on oils, spirit of wine, &c. having a very small affinity to phlogiston; and why it is not dissolved

lodged from any basis by uniting with phlogiston, as the vitriolic and nitrous acids are, its affinity to it being inconsiderable.

The attentive Reader will perceive that the preceding whole numbers and fractions do not always amount to 100. There must be, therefore, some typographical errors, which we do not find corrected in the list of errata. It is impossible for us to rectify the mistake, since of the several numbers that express the respective ingredients, we have no means of detecting that which is erroneous. But as precision, in the present case, is an object of utility with respect to some compounds and of curiosity with respect to all, we hope to see the errors corrected in the next publication of the Royal Society.

We now come to the two incidental disquisitions alluded to at the beginning of this article. The first respects the nature of phlogiston, that subtle principle, which many of the greatest chymists have despaired of obtaining in such a state, as that it may be submitted to experiment uncombined with other matters, though they have built so much of the theory of the science upon it. This principle our author contends, is neither more or less than inflammable air, though in that state it is combined with a quantity of elementary fire, which it receives, for instance, from the acid by which it is expelled from the metal. The arguments, by which he maintains this opinion, must be allowed to carry great weight. They are substantially the following :

First, He observes, that Mr. Volta has shewn that inflammable air is the principle which alone is truly inflammable. Different philosophers have obtained inflammable air from almost every combustible substance in nature. The difference of smell, observable in that obtained from different bodies, the Author attributes to accidental mixtures.

Secondly, Inflammable air is also the principle that reduces metals to their metallic state, and gives them their peculiar splendour. He quotes many experiments to prove this proposition, both analytically and synthetically.

Thirdly, Inflammable air is the substance which, with vitriolic acid forms sulphur, for it is the very substance which that acid separates from metals, and this substance, so separated, when in sufficient quantity, and in proper circumstances, unites with it in such proportion as to form sulphur.

Fourthly, Inflammable air diminishes respirable air, for the proof of which he refers to the fifth volume of Priestley, pages 84 and 359.

It may be objected, that inflammable air indeed contains phlo-

phlogiston, but united with some basis, which is according to some, an acid, to others, an earth, and to others again, respirable air.

To this our Author answers, that the basis cannot be an acid, since it has been separated from metals by mere heat, and by alkalies.

Nor can an earth enter into its composition, for the same reasons.

Lastly, Respirable air cannot be the basis of inflammable air, unless we suppose that it enters into the composition of metals, for Dr. Priestley has, by solar heat, extracted inflammable air from them in a vessel full of mercury, into which respirable air had no access, and even *in vacuo*.

Besides these leading arguments, there are several ingenious collateral observations adduced in support of this opinion, for which we must refer the curious reader to the Transactions themselves.

The second digression relates to the nature of fixed air, of which our Author justly observes, that it must be shewn to contain phlogiston, before the quantity of that principle is calculated.

Dr. Priestley, and after him various other experimenters, have observed, that in all phlogistic processes, a quantity of fixed air is precipitated from the common or dephlogisticated air in which they are performed. Now does the fixed air proceed from the respirable air? If so, does it pre-exist in that air, or is it generated during the process? and if so, what are its constituent parts?

To the first of these questions our Author answers, that in some cases it proceeds both from the decomposed matter and the respirable air. But, he thinks, there are four instances where it certainly proceeds from the latter alone, viz. during the calcination of metals, the decomposition of nitrous air, the diminution of common air by the electric spark, and lastly, its diminution by amalgamation. From some of the experiments quoted in proof of this proposition it appears, as indeed is well known, that common air is diminished $\frac{1}{4}$ of its bulk, and more during these processes. Now in answer to the second question, Mr. Kirwan observes, that common air cannot contain $\frac{1}{4}$ of fixed air, for 4 cubic inches of the former weigh 1,54 gr. but a mixture of $\frac{3}{4}$ dephlogisticated air, and $\frac{1}{4}$ fixed air weighs 1,83 grs. besides if fixed air pre-existed in common air, it might be separated by lime water. He therefore concludes, that it is generated by the dephlogisticated part of common air, uniting with the phlogiston separated in phlogistic processes, which expels part of its fire, and so forms fixed air. Mr. Kirwan successively added

6 measures of nitrous air to two of dephlogisticated air, and after each addition transferred the mixture into fresh lime-water, and after each the lime was precipitated till the whole was reduced to 1-10th nearly, so that 9-10th of this dephlogisticated were converted into fixed air. The whole of a quantity of common air can never be converted into fixed air, for no part of it will unite with phlogiston but the dephlogisticated part, which never exceeds $\frac{1}{3}$ of the whole. This Mr. Scheele has decisively proved, by exposing liver of sulphur to a mixture of phlogisticated and dephlogisticated air, which was diminished in the same proportion as it contained dephlogisticated air, and no more.

Phlogisticated air, in the opinion of Mr. Kirwan, consists of fixed air supersaturated with phlogiston. Thus Dr. Priestley found, that if it be agitated in water, out of which its own air has been boiled, and of which the surface is exposed to the atmosphere, it will be in a great measure purified, (just as sulphur is decomposed by trituration in water) and if then it be passed through lime-water it renders it turbid. If the electric spark be taken in fixed air, $\frac{1}{4}$ of it will be rendered insoluble in water, which residuum Mr. Fontana found to be phlogisticated air. By a fermenting mixture of iron filings and sulphur, fixed air is partly converted into phlogisticated air.

These are arguments deduced from synthesis; the following from analysis. Manganese, as Mr. Scheele has shewn, is dissolved by phlogisticated acids, and precipitated in the form of a white calx by alkalies. The same phenomena are presented by aerated water treated with manganese.

Fixed air repeatedly dissolved in and expelled from water, leaves each time a residuum insoluble in water, diminishable by nitrous air, and capable of supporting animal life. In this case, Mr. Kirwan supposes, that it is decomposed the phlogiston from it, and gradually uniting with the common atmosphere, by reason of the repulsive power between it and water.

Mr. Achard has converted fixed air into air of nearly the same purity as common air, by passing it five or six times through melted nitre.

Such are the principal reasons, by which Mr. Kirwan endeavours to prove, that phlogiston is a constituent part of fixed air. The remainder of the Disquisition is employed in answering objections. It must be allowed, that this hypothesis is supported with great ingenuity, and explains many things, which do not seem to admit of an easy explanation on any other. And, in justice to the Author, it must be observed, that the whole paper shews great address in making

making experiments, and great skill in reasoning both upon his own and those of others.

Art. 16. *Del modo di render sensibile la più debole Elettricità, sia naturale, sia artificiale.*

Of a method of rendering the weakest natural or artificial electricity very sensible. By Mr. A. Volta.

How desirable the attainment of this object will be to experimenters in general, and particularly to meteorologists, appears from the numerous, but unsuccessful efforts, that have been made with that view.

Mr. Volta proposes the electrophorus, that simple but ingenious contrivance, by which he has gained so much credit, for the purpose. The way of employing it is substantially as follows.

1. Let the resinous coat of the electrophorus be very thin and unelectrified.

2. The *shield*, or upper and loose plate, must be set upon the resin so as to touch in at every point. But care must be taken that it is at no part in contact with the metallic rim which surrounds the resin.

3. The *shield* being thus disposed, a wire must be brought from the atmospherical conductor to the *shield*. Care must be taken that it does not touch the plate containing the resin.

4. In this situation every thing must be left a certain time, till the shield has acquired a sufficient quantity of the electricity of the conducting wire, which flows very slowly.

5. Lastly, the electrophorus is to be carried out of the sphere of the influence of the wire; then take up the shield by its insulating handle: after which it will exhibit the usual signs of attraction, repulsion, the spark, the brush, &c. while the conductor does not shew any token of electricity.

For an account of the precautions, the theory, and various observations of curiosity and importance, we must refer to the original, the perusal of which will amply reward the philosophical reader. Before, however, we take leave of the volume, we must transcribe the title of a short article which we were very near overlooking.

Art. 17. *Extract of a register of the thermometer, barometer, and rain, at Lynden, in Rutland, 1780.* By Thomas Barker, Esq.

We have next the usual Appendix, the Meteorological Journal kept at the house of the Royal Society.

Having already expressed our opinion of the most considerable articles, and indeed of the whole contents of the

volume, again to testify the satisfaction with which we have perused it, would only be unnecessary repetition of our approbation.

ART. V. *Elements of Jurisprudence treated of in the Preliminary Part of a Course of Lectures on the Laws of England.* 4to. 5s. boards. Payne and Son.

THE first of the Lectures is appropriated to a consideration 'Of the Laws of Man's Nature.' After reciting the opinions of some celebrated writers concerning the fundamental principles of general or universal law, the Author considers natural law, as it affects the moral agency of mankind. His observations upon this subject lead him, in his second Lecture, to investigate civil and positive, or instituted law. But before he characterizes the fabricks of human legislation, he enquires into the efficient cause of the origin of political union, and into the right of migration from an established commonwealth. Having communicated his remarks upon civil or municipal law, he very naturally, in his third Lecture, examines the several kinds or orders of magistracy. In his fourth Lecture, he proceeds to illustrate what is understood by the law of nations. After clearing his way, in this method, he formally, in his fifth Lecture, inquires into the laws of England in a general view, and with respect to the various sources from which they have been derived. This, in our opinion, is the best part of his performance; and we shall extract from it what he has advanced concerning the ecclesiastical polity of England.

I SHALL next speak of canon law, and shew how differently that expression may be used; which will open an analytical view of the ecclesiastical polity of this kingdom.

Jus canonicum is generally explained by Lyndwood to be "*ab ecclesia, seu viris ecclesiasticis constitutum.*" But let us be more particular in our inquiries. Our ecclesiastical polity is not only distinguishable from foreign canon law, but the latter itself also is of various texture.

ECCLESIASTICAL constitutions began first to assume the form of laws in the time of Constantine, who added the energy of public authority to the synods at which they were enacted. After him Justinian gave a solemn ratification, by the words "*Sancimus veterum legum obtinere,*" to the ordinances* made in four councils, holden at Nice, Constantinople, Ephesus, and Chalcedon. Ayliffe distin-

* It is asserted, that the canons made at this council were, with others, received in this island at a national synod holden A. C. 680, by Archbishop Theodore, at the command of four Saxon kings. Ayl. Introd. Par. xi. xxxi.

guishes the more ancient canon law, thus established in councils of the church, from the *jus pontificium* founded on papal authority : which, however, became in process of time so far incorporated with the other into one general system, that the foreign canon law appears now to consist almost wholly of decrees and decretal epistles of popes, though many of these were probably founded on earlier and better authority. Various collections of canon law, were, in different ages, sent out into the world under the authority of successive popes. The code compiled by direction of Gregory the Thirteenth, is spoken of by Sir William Blackstone as containing the whole body of Roman canon law ; but to this, it seems, may be added, as text also of received validity among the canonists, the institutes framed by authority of Paul the Fourth, and the seventh book of Decretals.

‘ IN respect to the force of the Roman canon law in England, Sir William Blackstone observes, that it does not bind here because it was declared to be authentic by Gregory, and that the legislature never recognized any foreign power as superior or equal to it in this kingdom. It is perfectly clear, that such law does not *novi* bind here from Gregory’s ratification of it. So much of any foreign canons, as is universally binding in England, derives its present force either from having been expressly enacted here, by way of adoption, in parliament, or in councils, and ratified by parliament ; or from tacit usage and immemorial consent, by which such extrinsic institutions have been incorporated into our unwritten common law. These are the several grounds to which we ought now to refer the validity of the foreign canon law, so far as it is received in England. But in times of Popery, Sir William Blackstone admits, (notwithstanding the legislature never recognized any foreign power) the pontifical collections were received *as authentic* in this island. Many of the decretal epistles, which form the text of the Roman canon law, were directed into this country, to decide matters in doubt or controversy here. And it seems credible, that for the most part, till the dawn of the Reformation, the Romish canons in general, not being derogatory from the king’s prerogative, were admitted amongst us upon the ground of authority, as much as of voluntary acceptance.

‘ SIR JOHN DAVIS, indeed, industriously recites three instances of Romish canons not received in England ; from whence he argues, that others by the same reason might be rejected. One of these cases, the exemption of priests from all secular power, was considered as a gross attack on the prerogative. The legitimization of children born before wedlock, which is the second instance, and which was refused by the parliament of Merton, would have been a violent innovation of the municipal law, in a matter which that had provided for ; and the third canon quoted by him as rejected here, that relating to donatives, was, as he admits, alike slighted in many parts of Europe. Notwithstanding these few instances, the papal decrees in general may be supposed to have greatly influenced the ecclesiastical law of the kingdom, while papal power was in its meridian of splendor. It may be observed in particular, that after the sixth book of Decretals was compiled by Boniface the

Eighth, that pope by a bull inforced its reception in all courts of law and universities. And accordingly, the same year the compilation was made, it was formally promulged in Oxford.

‘ At the dawn, however, of the Reformation, the Parliament declared, in regard to the very subject we are considering, that this realm was free from subjection to any man’s laws, except such as have been here expressly enacted, or such other as the people at their free liberty, by their own and the king’s consent, have bound themselves to observe by long use and custom. This parliamentary declaration may confirm, what I have before intimated, that so much of the ecclesiastical polity of the kingdom as does not depend, either for its ratification or enactment, on any statute, is to be considered as part of the common law of the realm, and its authority here is now to be referred, like other branches of that system, to custom and immemorial usage, whether originally instituted by councils, or decreed by popes. The English canon law, in this large sense, is not confined to the cognizance only of our spiritual jurisdictions. Thus, in the year 1657, it was holden clearly by the court of Exchequer, that the council of Lateran, which, amongst its other institutions, freed the Cistercian order from the obligation of paying tythes, was a general law received in England, which included all men’s consent, and was as forcible as an act of parliament.

‘ OTHER parts of our ecclesiastical polity, not depending on the force of custom, derive their authority from express statutes, by which they have been either *enacted* or *ratified*. Of the former kind are, particularly, the provisions contained in the several acts of uniformity. By the latter expression I refer to the statute*, which ratifies and gives a parliamentary force and sanction to canons made in England before the twenty-fifth year of the reign of Henry the Eighth, until a review thereof should be had by thirty-two persons, (whom the king is empowered to appoint) sixteen of the clergy, and sixteen of the temporality, of the upper and nether† house of parliament. This act confirms those decrees of our English councils, commonly called legatine‡ and provincial constitutions, printed with annotations, under the name of Lyndwood’s Provinciale, and generally, I believe, received as law before this parliamentary ratification. But the canons here made in the year 1603, (which

* St. 25 H. VIII. c. 19. Dr. Burn, in the Preface to his Ecclesiastical Law, says, it was so enacted in regard to *the whole canon law*; but it seems, the review was to be confined to the acts of our English councils.

† This expression, which would now be considered as unparliamentary language, is very uncommon in the authentic records of any age.

‡ The title of these legatine constitutions might alone suffice to prove the weight of papal authority in England. In the synod under Orho, he is said to have presided “*assidentibus sibi Archiepiscopis*,” &c.”; and the other is said to have been holden by Othobon, in the presence of the Archbishops, &c. Lynd. Prov.—Gibb. t. XLI.

are usually understood by the term canons) being subsequent to this law, receive no confirmation by it, and have been solemnly adjudged not to bind the laity, because not enacted by the common consent of the realm. That is, they are not binding on the laity *proprio vigore*, as it is expressed, or on account of their having been enacted in convocation. For some of these last-mentioned canons are only declaratory of the antient canon law; which, provided it hath been received in use amongst us, and is not repugnant to the king's prerogative, nor to any statute or express rule of the common law, is still considered as of force in England, or as we should rather say, (according to what I have before observed) forms part of the common law, part of the ecclesiastical polity of the realm. Many of our present ecclesiastical laws are undoubtedly of foreign extraction, and some are entirely of English origin. But now they all alike depend, as to their general binding authority, on the same foundations as the whole body of our English laws, immemorial custom, and express act of parliament.*

The subjects of canon law, as practised in our ecclesiastical tribunals, have been injudiciously attempted to be comprised in the following line;

‘ Juxta, judicium, clerus, sponsalia, crimen.

None of these subjects is the exclusive and absolute province of the spiritual judge. The third and fourth articles are more peculiarly matters of ecclesiastical cognizance than the rest, which are only so, when they have an immediate relation to that system, or when offences are prosecuted with a view rather to the culprit's reformation, than to the public advantage of punishment.

TREATISES have been written concerning the points of variance between the Roman, civil, and canon laws: in which instances, Sir Thomas Craig tells us the inhabitants of this island have usually given the preference to the law ecclesiastical. Indeed, in computing the degrees of consanguinity, the canon, and not the civil law, is followed by us. But I know not that to be acquainted with this mode of reckoning is of much farther use, than sometimes more readily to understand the description of a title to lands by hereditary descent. For in construing the statute of distributions, (passed since the time of Sir Thomas Craig) which regulates the disposal of personal estates in cases of intestacy, it has been adjudged, that the civil, and not the canon law, is to be the guide of decision. I shall here farther observe of the canon law, that to it we must ascribe the original of the benefit of clergy; which privilege is, however, regulated by divers acts of parliament, and by a series of judicial decisions.

THE courts of judicature, in which, chiefly and more directly, the authority of the canon and civil law in general prevails, will be

* This detail will shew that the learned Judge Doddridge was not perfectly accurate or sufficiently explicit, when he said, “the law of the English church is not the law of the Pope, but is all extracted from the antient canons, as well general as national.”
Litch. 234.

distinctly mentioned, in treating of jurisdictions not proceeding by the general laws of the land.

In his sixth Lecture, the Author treats particularly of the study and profession of the laws of England; and the work concludes with a summary of the plan pursued in the remaining Lectures.

The Lectures, of which the specimen is now before us, were begun to be read at Oxford in the year 1777. And from the analysis we have given of the Preliminary Part, and from the extract we have presented to our Readers, they may judge in a great measure of the ability of the Writer. To us it appears, that his learning is greater than his ingenuity; and we approve not, by any means, of his servile attachment to authority. Hooker, Burlamaqui, Puffendorf, and Grotius, were certainly very eminent men; but it is not proper to rely upon them with the most implicit confidence; and if a Writer can only transcribe from the works of his predecessors, he has no title to trouble the world with his productions. While we object, however, the want of originality to our Author, it is observable that he is not deficient in acuteness.

If this publication is contrasted with the Commentaries of Sir William Blackstone, it will be seen with every disadvantage. The sound sense, the comprehensive description, the various erudition, the polite taste, the elegant diction of the illustrious Commentator, bespeak his superlative superiority. For our Author, while he has no claim to invention, has not compensated the want of genius, by the happiness and propriety of his manner and language. In his manner he is too cold and formal to please; and we, every where throughout his volume, desiderate the gracefulness and urbanity, that ought to distinguish the productions which are submitted to the public eye, at a period when taste and refinement are so highly advanced as to border, in some degree, on fastidiousness.

ART. VI, *Archæologia: or Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity.*

Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Vol. VI. 4to. Brown.

THE Antiquarian Society are, doubtless, respectable in a high degree from the rank and condition of the members, and from the anxious labour with which they continue their researches. The volumes which they have presented to the public are evident and striking proofs of their learning, their patriotism, and their industry. But amidst the praise they deserve, it cannot escape the observation of the

the intelligent Reader, that their attention has often been turned to matters which are of a frivolous tendency, and which can hardly be treated seriously without ridicule. This consideration which is humiliating and not to be contradicted, has thrown some disgrace upon the Society; but we should hope, that as the study of antiquity grows to be better understood, they will rise in their reputation, and obtain the consequence to which they ought to aspire.

Of the present volume we can observe with sincerity and pleasure, that it is not inferior to those which have preceded it. This, however is no great praise; but the laws of criticism require plainness and candour. Objects of a minute and unimportant curiosity appear in it with too much formality. Observations upon stones, and inscriptions, and rocks may abound in learned allusion, and may even be of some use in illustrating historical monuments. But these are not topics for the display of ability; and it is surprizing that they should be selected in preference to the endless multiplicity of important speculations, which the science of antiquity holds out to its votaries. Though the volume before us consists of thirty discourses, it is surprizing that there is no subject treated in any of them which a man of genius would have submitted to examine.

It has been frequently remarked by judicious inquirers into antient times, that the feudal system supplies a source of antiquities which is almost inexhaustible. The importance of the particulars it includes, their variety, their connexion with civil and military life, with laws, customs, and manners, and even their difficulty ought to stimulate the curiosity of our antiquarians. But from such themes they keep themselves at an awful distance. It would seem that they had entered into a compact to avoid with anxiety every topic that united curiosity and usefulness in any strong degree. The obscurity which still surrounds the earlier portions of the English history, and the chaos and confusion which darken every step in the progress of the jurisprudence of England deserve also to be dispelled. The antiquary should come in aid to the lawyer and the historian; and by achieving services to them, he might prove of the greatest utility, and rescue his study from the unceasing censures which men of understanding throw out against its frivolity and littleness. For in fact it is only frivolous and little from the want of cultivation and genius of the persons who have engaged in it.

These strictures are too applicable to the publication now before us; but, while we affirm that no commendable curiosity is to be gratified by the majority of the subjects

jects that are canvassed in it, we must except more particularly the observations on antient castles by Edward King, Esq. These, in our opinion, are learned, judicious, and instructive. Upon the other treatises which are exhibited, we cannot justly bestow any considerable share of praise. It is, therefore, from Mr. King's work that we shall extract a few passages for the inspection of our Readers; and this cannot be done without including his references to the plates, with which he illustrates his essay; a circumstance, which we are sorry, must necessarily give an awkwardness to our specimen of his execution.

'LET us now examine Lincoln castle; built (as Stow informs us,) about the same period by the Conqueror: which account Camden confirms; telling us, that Lincoln was, in the Norman times, one of the most populous cities of England; and that William the first, to strengthen it, and to keep the citizens in awe, built a very large and strong castle, on the ridge of the hill; and that many dwelling houses (to the number of one hundred sixty and six) were destroyed, for the castle.

'THE original magnificence of this city, may easily be conceived, from a circumstance almost peculiar to it of all the cities in England; which is, the vast number of beautiful Saxon and Norman door-ways, constructed in the most finished manner, and to be met with in every part of the streets; and in the walls of what are now the most private houses.

'AND the ancient Fortress here was by no means beneath the dignity of the place; which conveys to us very nearly the same idea of original Norman architecture, as that at York.

'THE keep was situated on an high artificial mount; this, however, was not (like the former) excluded out of the castle area; but the walls inclosing the whole circuit of the fortress were made to ascend on each side the slope, and to join to the great tower: which was, in other respects, in consequence of the steepness of the hill, and its talus, equally inaccessible, both from within the castle area, and from without, except by a steep flight of steps, and a draw-bridge over a ditch; and was therefore almost as compleatly insulated as that of York.

'It was nearly round; covering almost all the summit of the mount, like the preceding. But here, as at York, the great portal was still *on the ground*; no ways elevated on the side of the wall; and protected only by the difficulty of access, in consequence of the steepness of the hill. And, indeed, so much was that sort of security depended upon, that we here even find, moreover, remains of two great portals; one within the castle area to the S E; and one without to the N W: So that it is very plain (notwithstanding the walls of the castle area adjoining to it on both sides) that the Keep was considered (like the great tower at York) as a distinct, independent, strong hold; equally tenable with the rest of the castle, or without it.

'AND hence we may account for a very remarkable circumstance
mention.

mentioned by Lord Lyttelton (in his history of Henry II^d) that when this castle was suddenly attacked by king Stephen; and the town filled with his army, in order to invest it; (William de Rau-mara, earl of Lincoln, and his half brother the great earl of Chester, with their wives and families, being shut up therein), the earl of Chester *escaped*, at the *very instant* the king was entering the town, and got safe into Cheshire; from whence coming again with a great force, he gave battle, and took the king prisoner. His escape from the castle, at first sight, under such circumstances, appears marvelous; but we may easily understand how it was effected, by considering how distinct a fortress, from the rest, the *keep* was made; and what an outlet it had, independent of the rest of the castle, towards the country.

‘ AND indeed it is very well worth notice, consistently with this idea of the independency of this part of the fortress, in what a *strange manner* it was connected with the rest of the building. For it is very plain the great portal, at (f), F. XXVI, towards the castle area, was not considered as forming any communication between the different parts of this strong hold, except in times of peace and security: and that in case of close siege, it must have been very little used; and must have been as safely shut up, and as strongly defended, as that at (g) on the opposite side without the castle walls; both the one and the other being designed merely for state and convenience, when a numerous retinue were constantly passing in and out, and an open court was here kept by the great personages usually resident on this spot.

‘ BUT on the side, at (e), where a communication really was made with the rest of the buildings of the castle, the utmost caution manifestly was observed; for here we find, going from the tower at (b) (which tower also is upon another artificial mount), the remains of a passage, or covered way, at (d), along the upper part of the wall, and leading to a flight of steps on the side of the keep. To our astonishment however, when we come to examine them, there is no *immediate* passage into the keep, nor could there ever have been such; but they must clearly have ascended, with many windings, towards the top of this great tower, and must then have descended again through a strong projecting and adjoining building, which appears at (h), before any entrance could be gained into it.

‘ How the apartments above were finished, cannot now be ascertained; because the walls, in the upper part, are destroyed: but it appears, that in the lower room there was not even one loop hole; and from the great dimensions of the diameter of the room, it may be concluded the floors above must have been supported by pillars, placed in the circumference of some artificial well, in the middle, as at York, for the purpose of affording air and light, and of drawing up machines of war and stores.

‘ THE walls are above seven feet thick; and at (x), under the place of ascent from the covered-way, there is something like the remains of the mouth of a well; sufficiently protected by the great thickness and mass of walls every where adjoining.

‘ AT (z) appears to have been the door of the staircase leading to the upper part of the building.

‘ AND (o o o o o o) shew the basis of the steep mount, whereon the keep is built; the height of which mount is very great.

‘ HAVING thus described the part of this building which is characteristick of the Norman times; I shall now proceed to describe as much of the rest as remains perfect; without any regard to the ages in which the several parts were constructed. Undoubtedly great additions were made; both in the circuit, and within the area, at different periods: and it is known to have been improved to its greatest degree of perfection in the time of John of Gaunt duke of Lancaster, whose chief residence it once was: but it is most remarkable, and proves the antiquity of the building, that he finding the situation too keen and cold, retired to a winter palace, that he built, in the lower part of the town; of which there are still some remains; remains that shew he was well acquainted with a style of building far different from that of the ancient keep on the hill.

‘ THE outer walls of this castle inclose a very large area. The approach whereunto was, and is, by a great tower from the city, at (A), the whole device of which is more exactly represented F. XXVII. where (S) shews the first great gate, standing between two small round towers; beyond which was a small court of guard (6666). At (2) was the second great gate, directly under the great tower. At (3) was the Portcullis. At (5) are remains of two seats, in niches, for wardours; and at (4) was the fourth great gate. There are one or two magnificent rooms above, in this tower; but no communication with them (as far as I could perceive) from the arched gate way beneath; the approach of them being from the walls within the castle.

‘ IN the corner of the area of the castle, at (k) is a most remarkable strong and curious little building, appearing like a tower on the outside; and now called *Cob's hall*; and used as a dungeon: but it manifestly was originally a chapel; having a fine vaulted roof, richly ornamented, and supported by pillars; and having a crypt underneath; and also a small antichapel. The workmanship of the whole is exceedingly curious: and it is most particularly singular, that the pillars are so exactly placed over-against the loop-holes which afford light, as to be a protection against any missile weapons that might be thrown in.

‘ AT (j) are remains of another turret; under which I am informed, by Sir Henry Englefield, is a curious Saxon, or rather a Roman arch, appearing to have been a still more ancient entrance than that at (a) either to some original fortress in this place, or perhaps to the old city; but as it is not visible on the inside of the castle, in consequence of a mount placed in this part, it escaped my observation. These are all the fragments of the original building that now exist.

‘ I CANNOT, however, quit the mention of this curious place, without taking notice of some very extraordinary *earthen pipes*, found in its neighbourhood, and fastened by joints: one of which was sent to me a year or two ago by Sir Joseph Banks, president of

of the Royal Society, which I now lay before the Society of Antiquaries.

‘ It is one foot ten inches long, and between 2 and 3 inches in diameter within; but by no means regularly circular.

‘ THESE pipes lay in a direction leading straight, from the castle, to an outwork called *the Lucy tower*, at the bottom of the hill, standing by the side of the great antient Cut called *Caranffus's Ditch*. They were therefore suspected to have formed a communication, for some purpose or other, and possibly for the conveyance of sound. But I will not presume to decide any thing concerning them; as they might perhaps be designed for the conveyance of water, though ill suited for that purpose on account of the want of closeness in the joints. There is certainly a spring in the high ground between this tower and the castle, and they might possibly be part of some conduit from thence.

‘ WHETHER they were any part of the conduit mentioned by Leland, I am not able to determine; for want of greater accuracy in his description. His words are *, “ There is another new castle of conduit hedde, *trans Lindum flu:* and booth thele be ferrid by pipes derived from one of the houses of Freres, that were in the upper part of Lincoln.”

‘ WHATEVER they were, their form and substance, and manner of being *glazed*, is very odd, and curious; and therefore I venture, in this short digression, to make mention of them, and to represent one of them. (Fig. 2²)

In concluding this article, there is a general observation which it is proper for us to submit to our Readers. The diction and language employed in the discourses before us are exposed to almost every censure. Some subjects, indeed, are so rude, that they admit not of eloquence. But there is hardly a topic in any art or science which may not be treated with elegance. A fine pencil, whatever may be the theme to which it is applied, cannot lose altogether its lustre and delicacy. To elegance, however, the Society of Antiquaries have no claim from their modes of writing. They are frequently so careless as to be ungrammatical. Provincial idioms, and colloquial expressions are very common to them; and although their contributions are usually very short, there is not one of them which exhibits a classical purity and gracefulness of composition.

* I cannot but here remark a great inaccuracy in the editor of Camden's *Britannia*, who speaks of *the town being fortified by an old castle*: as if the castle was built for the protection of such an inconsiderable town, instead of the town being built (as was really the case with all such towns) as an appendage to, and in consequence of the erection of, the castle.

ART. VII. *The Man in the Moon; or, Travels into the Lunar Regions*, by the Man of the People. Small 8vo. 2 vols. 5s. sewed. Murray.

THE *Man of the People*, whose actions are so freely commented on in all the circles of Europe, and whose reputation, in his own country, is so differently estimated by a divided public, is now for the first time presented to their view as *the hero* of a romance.

By a species of machinery, (to which perhaps there is no parallel in the extravagance of human invention,) *our Hero* is lifted up to the sphere of the Moon, and, under the patronage of an æthereal conductor, is transferred from region to region, *extra flammantia mœnia mundi*. But though the principal scene of these travels lies remote from the Earth, the conversation generally turns on human affairs; and it seems to be the gracious design of *his Lunar Majesty* to superintend *our traveller* with a guardian care, and, in the course of his planetary tour, to instruct him in morals, in criticism, in philosophy, in politics, and in the arts of government. It is his design to correct the habits of the English demagogue by the discipline of other spheres, to open a nobler career to his ambition, and at last to restore him to his native planet, purified from those stains and corruptions which had contaminated his political life. "My beloved pupil," said the Lunar Sovereign, "I shall now proceed to the great work of your reformation, the grand purpose for which I brought you hither; and it is necessary, first of all, to tear from your eyes the films of prejudice, which for so many years have obscured your vision, that you may be capable of seeing men and things as they really exist."

There is accordingly presented to *the Man of the People*; a magic glass in which he contemplates himself, and starts back at the deformity of his own image. Well might he start if the reflected image corresponded, in any of the leading features, with the supposed original! for his political course is there represented as marked with blood, and all the movements of his ambition as adverse to the star of Britain.

That the conduct of this distinguished statesman has been uniformly directed by motives of honourable ambition, we neither affirm nor deny. But, while the luminous parts in the character are slightly touched, the shades are magnified to a degree which no laws of *caricature* can vindicate, and which not the admirers only of Mr. Fox, but even his generous political enemies must condemn. This representation there-

therefore, though eminently calculated to gratify the malignity of party, we do not hesitate to pronounce highly reprehensible, and equally repugnant to truth and nature. There is neither fidelity nor consistency in the portrait. For while our Author allows to his hero, on other occasions, a certain nobleness of mind and several attributes of *true* greatness, he ought to have remembered that such talents are pledges of public virtue, and though liable indeed to perversion and degeneracy, do in reality set bounds to the depravity of the human heart.

The allegorical personages of *virtue* and *vice*, which are next exhibited in the mirror of truth, are well delineated by our Author, and evidence no inconsiderable talents for moral painting. The description of the city of Uranibourg, of the Mare Crisium, and of the voyage to Pandæmonium is picturesque and animated. *The Man of the People*, when advanced into the mansions of Elysium is there permitted to *hold converse with the mighty dead* of all ages and nations. An illustrious company of both sexes, but chiefly composed of statesmen, orators, and philosophers, is assembled in the palace of Julius Cæsar, where the *English orator* is entertained with great hospitality and magnificence. The conversation, which in general is rational, and well supported, is tempered occasionally with that facetious and agreeable humour of which so perfect a model is left us by antiquity, in the banquet of Xenophon. A question having been started concerning the prodigious effects produced by the antient orators of Greece and Rome, *the master* of the feast proceeds thus.

‘I will deliver my sentiments on this subject with a frankness, which, in the company of DEMOSTHENES, may seem, to an inhabitant of the earth, to need an apology. But in the moon we neither converse nor dispute merely to display our talents. The object we have in view is TRUTH. If one is mistaken in any thing, another sets him right, without either shame on the one part, or triumph on the other.’ DEMOSTHENES, inclining his head first to JULIUS and then to CH—s F—x, nodded assent.

‘The ingenious David Hume labours to account for the superior efficacy of the antient over the modern eloquence, and to raise the tone of the British youth to a more elevated stile of public speaking: I should think with Mr. Hume, that the success of antient oratory was owing to that *pathetic* and *sublime* by which it is eminently distinguished from most of your English orations, if I did not know that there is, at this moment, a speaker in the British senate, who possesses all the genius, the fire, and the insinuation of Cicero, -but who seldom if ever, by the power of eloquence, carried a vote. Mr. Burke would have succeeded on the Roman rostrum, but his orations are only considered as a piece of ingenious amusement in St. Stephen’s chapel. Nor would all the thunder of Grattan
fway

sway the Irish senate, if they were not predisposed to enter into his sentiments. Demosthenes himself never possessed in a higher degree the talent of involving passion in a continued stream of argument. But does any man imagine, that even Mr. Grattan could command, by all his amazing powers, an English house of commons? The different success, therefore, of antient and modern eloquence is not so much owing to a difference in the speakers, as to a difference in the audiences.

‘ I acknowledge that there was, in a Greek and Roman audience, a greater sensibility than is to be found in northern climates, to the charms of eloquence, as of every thing else. But neither do I ascribe the different effects of antient and modern eloquence to that circumstance solely, although certainly its influence was not inconsiderable. The circumstances which, in my apprehension, account for the phenomenon in question, are chiefly these:

‘ 1. The audiences addressed by the Greek and Roman orators, were more numerous and plebeian, or popular, than the English or Irish house of commons, or the Venetian senate, or the states-general of the United Provinces; the great theatres in modern times for eloquence. In small assemblies composed of men of rank, knowledge, and pretensions to the first offices of the state, parties and cabals are naturally formed, and the senator comes into the public councils of the nation pre-determined to vote with the faction that he favours, whatever specimens of oratory may prolong the farcical debate. This matter needs not any farther illustration. It would be wonderful eloquence indeed, that should persuade a member of your house of commons to agree to a motion, if he should thereby lose either the possession, or the prospect, of a lucrative place or pension. But in the numerous assemblies of Athens and Rome, eloquence had a fuller sway, as it was not possible to manage by all the arts of flattery and power of corruption, so great a body of people.

‘ 2. Without making any invidious comparison between the virtue of the Athenian demagogues and the Roman tribunes on the one part, and the orators of Great-Britain on the other, I may affirm, that the follies and frailties of the British senators, by means of news papers and other productions of the press, are more generally known to the English, than the vices of the Athenians and Roman chiefs were to the Athenian or Roman people. This is a circumstance of infinite importance, as nothing is so popular as virtue, or gives so great weight to the arguments of a public speaker.’

‘ Here the illustrious emperor of Rome made an end of speaking, and with inexpressible complaisance and grace, by the mute expression of looks and gesture, submitted what he had advanced to the judgment of the company.’

Hitherto the company seem to indulge *the feast of reason and the flow of soul*. But the *risible and the ludicrous* almost every where predominate; and the transition in this chapter is managed with exquisite address. *The Man of the people* overpowered with nectar, begins, all of a sudden, to declaim in a rhapsody that equally diverts and confounds the audience,

audience. Unacquainted with the intoxicating qualities of that *divine* element,

Ille impiger hausit spirituantem pateram;

And, under the influence of the inebriating draught, he gives a singular specimen of his oratorical powers. But the *ebriety* of the English orator, on this occasion, was perhaps as excusable as that of the patriarch of old, who just after the deluge, committed *inadvertently* a similar excess by the free use of certain intoxicating liquors, of which he had no experience in the antediluvian world.

Soon after this incident, our rambling hero, or rather *blazing meteor* disappears from Uranibourg, and plunges into the *mare crisium*.

‘THE MAN OF THE MOON,’ says our Author, ‘soon presented himself *pleno orbe* before the English orator, and thus with elevated front addressed him:—‘It is my will that you now leave this city. I will lay before you a scene of a different nature. I will inform you in what merit consists, and in what the contrary. I will shew you who are the benefactors of mankind, and who are useless or hurtful. I will shew you who are the true philosophers, and who by deceiving men into specious, easy, popular, and fallacious paths, do infinite mischief to the cause of truth and general happiness. Put off for the present your winged shoes, and leave them in this splendid mansion. I assure you there is none of the inhabitants of Uranibourg who will avail himself of the opportunity which such instruments afford him of making his escape to any other place in the world. You shall mount on my nose, and plunge with me into the *MARE CRISIUM*.’

We now hasten to wind up this article with a few general observations on our Author's manner and spirit. A *Caviller*, or even a fastidious Critic, who applies to every subject the severer canons of art, might certainly detect considerable defects, both in the plan and contexture of this singular performance. The scene of the gypsies in the first volume, though admirable in its way, is rather drawn into length, and forms a sort of episode, disproportioned to the principal design. Some distinguished characters, both in the political and learned world, are animadverted upon with all the poignancy of sarcasm. Decorum is sometimes sacrificed to freedom; and the more delicate graces of style and composition, to luxuriant imagery and flights of an excursive and undisciplined imagination. But there is a body of sound sense, and a vein of genuine humour, which pervade this performance, which greatly preponderate against its imperfections in the scale of literary merit, and which must infallibly recommend it to the lovers of ingenious romance.

Towards the close of this work, our Author describes the office of *Editor of the Lunar Travels* as highly interesting to

the learned world; and the following authors, Johnson, Gibbon, Burke, M'Pherson, Lowth, Stuart, Dunbar, Price, Priestley, and Fordyce, are stated as candidates more or less qualified for that *honourable distinction*.

Dr. Johnson is treated with all the severity of invective which distinguishes the Edinburgh School; but our Author instead of opening his batteries against this Colossus of Literature, had done well, perhaps, to imitate the prudent caution of his *master in rhetoric**, who has suppressed in his lectures to the public, those strictures on *the style of the Rambler*, which served as a high seasoning to his course, when delivered within the walls of the academy, to an audience of Caledonian youth.

Our Author professes himself a Scotchman; yet the only Scotticism we have remarked in the perusal of these volumes, consists in the use of the verb *discharge* for *forbid* in the following sentence "but he *discharged* him from entering minutely into that subject, in this narrative."

In general the style is correct, vigorous, and manly: though, perhaps, a little more attention to the *LIMÆ LABOR* might have conferred on it a more agreeable polish, without derogating from its energy and spirit.

Art. VIII. *The Letters of Zeno to the Citizens of Edinburgh on the present mode of electing a Member of Parliament for that City.* To which is prefixed a Letter to the Right Honourable William Pitt Chancellor of the Exchequer, on the Political State of the Scottish Burghs, in which a change is suggested on Constitutional Principles. The Second Edition, with additional Observations on the Subject in General, and a Letter from a Gentleman, eminent in the Law, at Edinburgh, to the Secretary of the Committee of Burgeses at Aberdeen. 12mo. No Booksellers name.

THE Scottish nation, which is allowed to have signalized itself in the field, and in the walks of science and literature, has not been distinguished by any great and steady efforts for civil liberty. Ingenious and industrious writers have indeed shewn, that in former ages the people of Scotland enjoyed a considerable degree of importance; and their zeal for religion in latter periods, has proved an instrument for the subversion of that civil and religious slavery, which the race of Stuart constantly laboured to impose on their subjects. But in every period of the Scotch history, we find aristocratical power prevailing over the liberties of the people: nor have aristocratical ideas, usages, and claims been wholly

* Dr. Blair.

banished from that antient kingdom, by an union with a great and free nation, and by the abolition of the hereditary jurisdiction of barons over their vassals.

In the present times, however, as we have already had occasion to observe, a spirit of liberty begins to pervade North Britain, and she at last feels the contagion of the general commotion of the British empire.

It is the constant effect of the spirit of liberty, to excite an animation in public writing, as well as in public debate. The Scottish Parliament, that had slumbered for a complete century, under the benumbing influence of arbitrary power, was roused by the zeal of patriotism, on the occasion of the union of the kingdoms: and the speeches of FLETCHER, of SALTON and BELHEVEN, proved, that favourable circumstances alone were wanting to raise, in the cold regions of Caledonia, the ardour of eloquence, as well as the impetuous bravery of a warlike disposition. The collection of letters, now before us, in like manner breathe that spirit, as well as eloquence, which great occasions, by awakening the passions, and expanding the mind, so naturally infuse into the speeches, and the publications of men, who feel the love of their country.

The first of these letters, which is subscribed *Civis*, is addressed to *Mr. Pitt*, whom the letter-writer encourages to proceed in his plan of constitutional reformation, by enumerating the circumstances that presage success. He lays before that young statesman and patriot, a brief account of the rise, progress, and present state of the setts, or constitution of the Scotch boroughs. These setts or constitutions are highly aristocratical: and *CIVIS* shews, that the inhabitants of the burghs, have neither the privilege of electing their magistrates, for their municipal government, nor of their representatives in the national assembly. He observes upon the inconsistency of this system with liberty and the general interests of the community, and throws out a few hints, which appear very judicious, for reforming the abuses of which he complains. *CIVIS* recommends to the attention of *MR. PITT*, and of the public, the elegant and persuasive *ZENO*, whose letters are addressed to the citizens of Edinburgh.

ZENO, in his first letter, shews, that the election of the representatives in parliament for the Scotch burghs, has for a lapse of time, been conducted in a manner arbitrary and iniquitous; and illustrates, in a lively manner, the bad consequences of such a system. In his second letter, he describes the outlines of civil liberty, and of the British constitution. By comparing the situation of the Scotch burghs with these,

and judging by this criterion, he concludes, that they neither enjoy civil liberty, nor the rights of British subjects. Next appears a letter of *Civis*, applauding the principles and designs of *Zeno*, and strongly recommending popular elections, without which, he thinks, that any addition to the number of representatives of burghs in parliament, instead of an advantage, would be a real grievance.

ZENO, in his third letter, shews, that all just power originates from the people; that magistrates have no right to exercise any species of power, that is incompatible with the privileges of the people; and that, if they should be found to have usurped any, the people, as the original trustees, have a title to revoke it. In the fourth letter, he points out the evil consequences of lodging the power of election in the hands of a few electors.

ZENO, in his preceding letters, having exhibited the arbitrary modes of election established in Edinburgh, as well as in the other burghs of Scotland, and shewn the opposition between these modes and the principles of the British constitution, warmly exhorts his countrymen, to use every effort, in the present favourable conjuncture, to obtain a remedy for so great a grievance.

A citizen of Aberdeen next appears on the field, who earnestly exhorts his fellow citizens to follow the example of the citizens of Edinburgh, in endeavouring to place the election of magistrates, and of the representatives in parliament for the city, on a more enlarged and liberal footing. A sketch is added of the history and present situation of the Scotch burghs. In this sketch, it appears, that the constitutions of these burghs were antiently more free and popular than they are at present.

Lastly, a letter is subjoined from a gentleman eminent in the law, at Edinburgh, to the Secretary of the Committee of Burgeses, at Aberdeen. The ingenious and distinct writer of this clear and sensible letter, after making a few just and profound observations on the nature of both popular and arbitrary governments, proposes that the right of election should be restored to the burgeses, not, however, to be exercised as antiently, in a collective body, but in their separate societies of merchants and incorporations.

We have given a more particular account of this little work, than we can afford to give of most political pamphlets, because the letters it contains, are written with unusual elegance, spirit, and erudition; and, as we are informed, by men of rank and consideration in their country; in particular, we are informed that the letter to the Secretary of the Committee of Burgeses, at Aberdeen, is the production of

a Senator

a Senator of the College of Justice at Edinburgh; and the letters of Zeno have been ascribed to another member of that learned body. But whoever may be the author or authors of these anonymous letters; they certainly tend to exhibit the rising spirit of the Scottish nation.

Art. IX. Memoirs of the Bastille. Containing a full exposition of the mysterious Policy and despotic Oppression of the French Government, in the interior Administration of that State Prison. Interspersed with a variety of Curious Anecdotes. Translated from the French of the celebrated Mr. Linguet, who was imprisoned there, from September 1780 to May 1782. Small. 8vo. 3s. Sewed. Kearnly.

THIS publication is divided into two parts. In the first of these Mr. Linguet, who is now in England, proves that his return hither was a measure indispensable, and that his confinement in the Bastille had no just motive. In the second, he shews that, admitting the necessity of state prisons, in certain cases, the regimen of them should however be founded in justice, and that even the guilty, ought not to be convicted, judged, and punished, but according to the laws. But at the Bastille, he maintains, none of the laws are observed, or rather they are all violated. It is necessary, he observes, to vindicate his innocence, that the world may be more sensibly struck with the picture of those horrors, from which his innocence had been insufficient to preserve him. The world is interested in this subject, since what happened to Mr. Linguet, may one day happen to every native or foreigner residing in France.

With regard to Mr. Linguet's innocence, and the necessity he was under of returning to Britain, the English reader is well satisfied. Much less evidence than what is brought by Mr. Linguet, would be sufficient to convince every person, who knows and respects the rights of mankind, that the treatment he met with from the depotism of the French government, was extremely cruel and unjust. And while we read what this celebrated writer relates, of the arbitrary proceedings of France, we are disposed to place the highest value on our civil liberty, and to watch with a jealous eye, over that spirit of encroachment, on the part of governors and kings, which, in France, as in most countries of Europe, has enslaved the great body of the people.

The horrors of the Bastille, which form the subject of the second part of this production, are described in a very affecting manner, and with a circumstantiality which enlarges the dreadful picture of that infernal mansion. It ap-

pears, that there has been a gradual increase of severity, from the first institution of the Bastille to the present times.—“The prisoner,” says Mr. Linguet, “is abandoned, at least for a considerable length of time, without books, without paper, to the torturing suspense, of being entirely ignorant of what passes in the world, of the fate of his family, his fortune, his honour; of what he has been, and of what he is to be accused; torments which a constant solitude, undiverted by any kind of avocation, renders more intolerable. He has no other security for his life, but the tenderness of his keepers. He has grounds to be apprehensive of poison in every dish that is served up to him. Every time his door is opened, the melancholy clang of the bolts and bars, with which it is loaded, may seem to announce his death warrant, or to notify the arrival of the mutes, destined to perform the fatal office. If he preserves his health, it is but an additional grievance, sensibility being then more exquisite, and privation more painful. If it gives way, as is generally the case, to the miseries of his situation; he is allowed neither relief nor comfort, but must remain in that helpless and wretched condition, agonized by reflecting on the impossibility of an escape, on the misfortunes that may happen to his family, that his end will, perhaps, remain unknown, and that his mistaken wife and children may be offering up vows, and making efforts for his deliverance, long after the sepulchre, in which he was buried alive, will contain no remains of him, but his bones!”

These are a few of the strokes by which this eloquent writer delineates the horrid image of the great state prison of France. A vast variety of anecdotes and circumstances, well authenticated, prove that this melancholy picture is far from being overcharged. “How weakly, on the contrary,” in the words of Mr. Linguet, “does it represent those tortures, and lengthened convulsions of the mind; those perpetual agonies that eternise the pains of death, without affording its repose!”

It often happens, that the innocent prisoners in the Bastille, are secretly put to death by assassins, hired for that purpose. “It happened one morning, says Mr. Linguet, about two o’clock, that I heard a prodigious uproar upon the stair case: a vast number of people were ascending the stairs in a tumultuous manner, and advanced no farther than the door of that chamber: they seemed there to be engaged in much bustle and dispute, and to be running frequently backwards and forwards: I heard very distinctly, repeated struggles and groans. Now, was this an act of succour, or of assassination? was it the introduction of a physician, or an executioner?

executioner? I know not: but three days after, about the same hour in the morning, I heard, at the same door, a noise less violent: I thought I could distinguish the carrying up, the setting down, the filling, and the shutting of a coffin: these ceremonies were succeeded by a strong smell of juniper." To each of the parts into which this publication is divided, are subjoined notes, containing explanations of different allusions, and many curious anecdotes of distinguished persons. Mr. Linguet writes with great vivacity, and, in so great a sufferer for the cause of liberty, we readily excuse a considerable share of self-importance.

Art. X. *Dissertations on select Subjects, on Chemistry and Medicine.*

By M. Wall. M. D. 8vo. 3s. Sewed. Oxford, Prince. Cadell, London.

THE University of Oxford has lately made some feeble attempts to shake off that shameful inattention to scientific pursuits, that for several years has disgraced her members, and particularly her professors, in the eyes of all Europe. These Dissertations are, we believe, the first fruits of some new institutions, established with that view. The first is an inaugural dissertation on the study of chemistry, read in the natural philosophy school. The second is entitled, conjectures on the origin and antiquity of the use of symbols in astronomy and chemistry; and the third, which is also the last, contains observations on the diseases prevalent in the South Sea islands, particularly the lues venerea, with some remarks concerning its first appearance in Europe. If we are to judge from this specimen, we may venture to pronounce, without danger of incurring the censure of temerity, that it will be long before Oxford will have a place and a name among the schools of medicine. That the academical oration "should have been received with flattering marks of attention" neither surprizes nor prejudices us in its favour; for to an audience, to whom nothing of chemistry was known except the name, it might easily appear to be written with strength of judgment, and fraught with novelty of information, but by those who possess a small share of chemical erudition, it will be esteemed a nauseous repetition of a tale, that has been told by an hundred preceding writers. A school boy with a few common place ideas, might have declaimed as eloquently about the origin, and progress; and usefulness of chemistry; and told how the alchemists laboured to little purpose, and expressed extravagant notions in unintelligible language.

The second Dissertation is an example of a truth, which

the observers of human life have many opportunities of discovering; viz. 'That men of weak judgment and of some classical learning, when they proceed to scientific pursuits are for ever deviating into puerile and useless disquisitions. They overlook the substance of science, in order to contemplate the shadow, with all the fondness of admiration.'

The third essay, well deserves a place with its fellow; and while we agree with the author, that it will be impossible for candour to commend the execution of his work, we are of opinion, that the motives upon which it was undertaken, will not plead his excuse for adding to the number of useless books.

Art. XI. *An Essay on the usefulness of Chemistry, and its application to the various purposes of Life.* Translated from the Original of Sir Toibern Bergman. 8vo. 3s. Sewed. Murray.

THOSE who wish to know how general topics ought to be treated, should compare this essay with the Dissertations mentioned in the preceding article. There they will find empty noise, and a disgusting parade of quotations, of which we hope, no one will require of us to shew the application. Here we have accurate distinctions and precise ideas. The endeavour of the Dissertations, is to entrap approbation by the idle arts of the rhetorician; the object of the Essay, is to convey or recal useful knowledge, with the unpretending air of the philosopher.

Our Author, after some general remarks on the limits of the three sciences, that treat of the productions of nature, (Natural History, Mechanical Philosophy, and Chemistry) and the doctrine of attraction, proceeds to consider chemistry under three points of view, as it renders bodies subservient to our health, to our support, and to our conveniencies and pleasures. These heads include pharmacy, metallurgy and the various arts and manufactures, of which all are connected with the science, and some are nothing but a series of chemical process. His next general head, is natural bodies, these he divides into salts, earths, inflammable substances, metals, and air.

While we agree with all Europe, in considering the writings of Professor Bergman, as the most excellent that chemistry has to boast of, there are occasions, on which we are obliged to dissent from him. In particular, we regret that this, as well as his other Essays, are deformed by his pertinacious adherence to Mr. Scheele's theory of heat. Whether pure air is composed of the aerial acid and some other matter, is what we cannot but question, especially after the late observations

vations of Mr. Kirwan. There are, perhaps, some other acknowledgements of the tribute, which, according to M. Senac's beautiful expression, every man, however learned and ingenious, owes to error.

With respect to the translation, we cannot decide positively concerning its merit, for want of an opportunity of comparing it with the original, but it appears to be not ill executed. The language is seldom harsh or improper; and the context does not often afford room for suspecting that the author's meaning has been misrepresented. But of this, there are perhaps a few instances. "Quicksilver," it is said, p. 117, "is as much a metal as any of them." We have little doubt but it ought be; "quicksilver is as perfect a metal as any of the preceding;" for the reason subjoined is that it is malleable, and no one ever doubted that quicksilver was a metal. We could also point out some awkward phrases and foreign idioms, but when was translation free from such blemishes?

ART. XII. *An Introduction to Natural Philosophy*, by W. Nicholson. 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. boards. Johnson.

THERE is not much novelty either in the materials or arrangement of this compilation. We shall therefore content ourselves with a few remarks on it. The received doctrines are in general delivered with precision and perspicuity. It is preferable to the epitomes of Rowning, Martin, and others, because it is of a later date. Yet perhaps the Author has not sufficiently availed himself of this circumstance, and the work might have been rendered still more valuable by greater attention to recent improvements. For instance, Mr. Watts's alterations in the steam engine are hinted at, but the Author forbears to describe them, lest he should do that gentleman and his partner an injury; a reason with which we believe few of his readers will be satisfied. There is one defect which pervades the whole of this performance, and which no abilities in executing the several parts could have surmounted: It is too great narrowness of plan. Two 8vo volumes certainly do not afford sufficient room for such a detail in the several branches of natural philosophy when chemistry is included, as is sufficient for beginners. Hence we could wish to see the well-written epitome of M. Sigand de la Fond translated into English with additions.

The article *Chemistry* is the most liable to objection of any in the whole work: It contains some propositions which ought not to have appeared in a work printed in 1782.

From

From these we shall select the following. "It is pretty well decided that alkalis are compounded of acid, of earth and of a small proportion of phlogiston": again: "if alkalis be dissolved in water, an earth is separated, if the dissolved part be dried and again dissolved, more earth is separated; and so on for any number of times." Now the fact here mentioned is not true, and consequently the theory falls to the ground: they are both we believe taken from Mr. Beaumè, an Author generally unhappy in his speculations: Mr. Nicholson in some places alludes to Professor Bergman's writings, yet it would appear from this and some other passages, that he has not paid that attention to them to which their superior excellence entitles them from every compiler of an elementary book on chemistry, otherwise he would not have fallen into this mistake. "Caustic fixed alkali has the power of dissolving siliceous earth *viâ siccâ*; in the way it is generally prepared it actually combines with a portion of this earth; when it comes to be dissolved in water, it attracts the aerial acid, and hence the deposition. If it be at once saturated with this volatile acid, it will let go all the earth it contains; and if it be now dried and again dissolved, there will be no appearance of any earthy deposition *."

"Clay well baked *perfectly* resembles sand". Here we must again refer our Readers to the essays of the same great chemist; those who wish to acquire an accurate idea of the properties of siliceous earth, which is a distinct species from every other, may consult the dissertation on this earth, or that on the earth of gems, or that on the blow pipe, which are all contained in the second volume.

"The affinity of the marine acid with phlogiston is so weak, that we are not assured, if it can be at all combined with it, unless by the help of some intermediate substance." We have entertained the idea that the phenomena of the marine acid with phlogistic substances was abundantly cleared up. The truth is, that the marine acid attracts phlogiston very powerfully; but in its ordinary state it is saturated with that principle. Let the Author dephlogisticate it by means of the black calx of manganese, or the calx of lead, and mix phlogistic substances with it, and, he will *then be assured*, that it may be combined with phlogiston. Indeed from another passage in his book he seems not to be unacquainted with this experiment. Why then does he raise difficulties where every thing is plain and perspicuous?

* See Bergman's *Opuscula*, Vol. I. Dissertation on the Aerial Acid.

ART. XIII. *The Hiſtory of Sumatra*: containing an Account of the Government, Laws, Cuſtoms, and Manners of the Native Inhabitants, with a Deſcription of the natural Productions, and a relation of the antient political State of that Iſland. By William Marſden, F. R. S. late Secretary to the Preſident and Council of Fort Marlborough, 4to. Payne.

IT is remarkable, that the Iſland of Sumatra, though it is highly favoured by nature, and was once the emporium of eaſtern wealth, has been ſeldom deſcribed, and never with ability, till its hiſtory was recorded in the work now before us.

To a general and comprehensive account of the inhabitants of Sumatra, the Author has joined a natural hiſtory of the iſland. Nor is he more diſtinguiſhed as a civil than as a natural hiſtorian. To accumulate facts is not the mere purpoſe of this writer: he was ſenſible, that hiſtory is only to be valued in proportion, as it augments the knowledge, and contributes to the advantage of mankind. The various governments which have been eſtabliſhed in Sumatra, attract his particular attention; and he is full and minute in whatever has a reference to cuſtoms, opinions, arts, induſtry, and laws. He holds out to the philoſopher much curious information, that may figure in investigations into the hiſtory of man; a ſpecies of writing which has become very fashionable, and which is certainly of the higheſt importance. He alſo holds out many lights to direct the naturaliſt in his painful purſuits. And the modeſty and manlineſs of his carriage cannot fail of recommending him to Readers of every deſcription.

As a ſpecimen of his manner we ſhall extract a part of what he has written concerning the religion of the Sumatrans.

* In works deſcriptive of the manners of people little known to the world, the account of their *religion*, uſually conſtitutes an article of the firſt importance. Mine will labour under the contrary diſadvantage. The ancient and genuine religion of the Rejangs; if in fact they ever had any; is ſcarcely now to be traced; and what principally adds to its obſcurity, and the difficulty of getting information on the ſubject, is, that even thoſe among them who have not been initiated in the principles of Mahometaniſm, yet regard thoſe who have, as perſons advanced a ſtep in knowledge beyond them, and therefore heſitate to own circumſtantially, that they remain ſtill unenlightened. Ceremonies are fascinating to mankind, and without comprehending with what views they were inſtituted the *proſanum vulgus* naturally gives them credit for ſomething myſterious and above their capacities; and accordingly pay them a tribute of reſpect. With Mahometaniſm, a more extenſive field of literature (I ſpeak in comparison) is opened to it's converts, and ſome additional notions of ſcience are conveyed. Theſe help to give it importance; though
it

it must be confessed they are not the most pure tenets of that religion, which have found their way to Sumatra; nor are even the ceremonial parts very scrupulously adhered to. Many who profess to follow it, give themselves not the least concern about its injunctions, or even know what they require. A Malay at *Manna*, upbraided a countryman, with the total ignorance of religion, his nation laboured under. "You pay a veneration to the tombs of your ancestors: what foundation have you for supposing that your dead ancestors can lend you assistance?" "It may be true; answered the other; but what foundation have *you*, for expecting assistance from *Allah* and *Mahomet*?" Are you not aware; replied the Malay; that it is written in a *Book*: have you not heard of the *Koraa*?" The native of *Passumah*, with conscious inferiority, submitted to the force of this argument.

* If by religion is meant a public or private form of worship, of any kind; and if prayers, processions, meetings; offerings, images, or priests, are any of them necessary to constitute it, I can pronounce that the *Rejangs* are totally without religion, and cannot, with propriety, be even termed *Pagans*, if that, as I apprehend, converts the idea of mistaken worship. They neither worship God, devil, nor idol. They are not, however, without superstitious beliefs of many kinds, and have certainly a confused notion; though perhaps derived from their intercourse with other people; of some species of superior beings, who have the power of rendering themselves visible or invisible, at pleasure. These they call "*orang alous*," "fine, or impalpable men," and regard them as possessing the faculty of doing them good or evil; deprecating their wrath, as the cause of present misfortunes, or apprehension of future, prevails in their minds. But when they speak particularly of them, they call them by the appellations of "*malaykat*," and "*jinn*," which are the angels, and evil spirits of the *Arabians*, and the idea may probably have been borrowed, at the same time with the names. These are the powers they also refer to, in an oath. I have heard a *dupatty* say, "my grandfather took an oath that he would not demand the *joojoor* of that woman, and imprecated a curse on any of his descendants that should do it: I never have, nor could I without *sula kapada malaykat*—an offence against the angels." Thus they say also, "*te tolong neberb, malaykat*" the prophet and angel assisting. "This is pure mahometanism.

* The clearest proof that they never entertained an idea of Theism, or the belief of one supreme power, is, that they have no word in their language to express the person of God, except the "*Allah tallab*" of the Malays, corrupted by them to "*Oola tallo*." Yet when questioned on the subject, they assert their ancestors knowledge of a deity; though their thoughts were never employed about him; but this evidently means no more, than that their forefathers, as well as themselves, had heard of the *Allah* of the Mahometans (*Allah orang Israem*).

* They use, both in *Rejang* and *Passumah*, the word "*dewey*, to express a superior, invisible class of beings; but each country acknowledges it to be of foreign derivation, and they suppose it *Javanese*. *Raddien*, of *Madura*; an island close to *Java*; who is well

conversant with the religious opinions of most nations, asserted to me that "*desway*" or "*deewah*," was an original word of that country, for a superior being, which the interior *Javans* believed in; but that they used no ceremonies or forms of worship; that they had some idea of a future life; but not as a state of retribution; conceiving immortality to be the lot of rich, rather than of good men. I recollect that an inhabitant of one of the islands farther eastward, observed to me, with great simplicity, that great men only went to the skies; how should poor men find admittance there? The Sumatrans, when untinctured by Mahometanism, do not appear to have any notion of a future state. Their conception of virtue or vice, extends no farther than to the immediate effects of actions, to the benefit or prejudice of society, and all such as tend not to either of these ends, are, in their estimation, perfectly indifferent.

Notwithstanding what is asserted of the originality of the word "*desway*" or "*deewah*," I cannot help remarking its extreme affinity to the Persian word "*deeo*" which signifies "an evil spirit" or "bad genius," and is called in our translation "*dive*." Perhaps, long antecedent to the introduction of the faith of the *Caliphs*, among the eastern people, this word might have found its way, and been naturalized in the islands; or perhaps its progress was in a contrary direction. It has likewise a connection in sound, with the names used to express a deity, or some degree of superior being, by many other people of this region of the earth. The *Battas*; inhabitants of the northern end of Sumatra, whom I shall describe hereafter; use the word "*daibattab*" or "*daiwattab*;" the *Chingalese*, of Ceylon, *dewijoo*; the *B'adjos* of Borneo, *dewattab*; the *Papooas* of New Guinea, *'wat*; and the *Pampangas*, of the Phillippines, *diwata*. It bears likewise an affinity (doubtless accidental) to the *Deus* of the Romans.

The superstition which has the strongest influence on the minds of the Sumatrans, and which approaches the nearest to a species of religion, is that which leads them to venerate, almost to the point of worshipping, the tombs and *manes* of their deceased ancestors (*nennay poeyang*). These they are attached to as strongly as to life itself, and to oblige them to remove from the neighbourhood of their *crammat* (*cimiteries*), is like tearing up a tree by the roots. These, the more genuine country people regard chiefly, when they take a solemn oath, and to these they apostrophize in instances of sudden calamity. Had they the art of making images, or other representations of them, they would be perfect *lares penates*, or household gods. It has been asserted to me, that in very ancient times, the Sumatrans made a practice of burning the bodies of their dead, but I never could find any traces of the custom, or any circumstances that corroborated it.

They have an imperfect notion of a Metempsychosis, but not in any degree systematic, and I doubt its having any original connexion with the doctrines of the *Hindoos*. Popular stories will often prevail, and be generally received, of such a man being changed into a tiger, or other beast. They think indeed that tigers in general are actuated with the spirits of departed men, and no consideration

ration will prevail on a countryman, to catch or to wound one, but in self defence, or immediately after the act of destroying a friend or relation. They speak of them with a degree of awe, and hesitate to call them by their common name (*reemow*, or *machang*), but rather, with a degree of tenderness, their *nemay* (ancestors), or *setuo*, (the old people); as really believing them such, or by way of soothing or coaxing them; as our ignorant country folk call the fairies, "the good people." When an European procures traps to be set, by the means of persons less superstitious, those have been known to go at night to the place, and practice some forms, in order to persuade the animal, when caught, or when he shall perceive the bait, that it was not laid by them, or with their consent. They talk of a place in the country where the tigers have a court, and maintain a regular form of government, in towns, the houses of which are thatched with women's hair. It happened that in one month, seven or eight people were killed, by these prowling beasts, in Manna district; upon which a report became current, that fifteen hundred of them were come down from Passummah; of which number, four were without understanding (*gerlo*), and having separated from the rest, ran about the country occasioning all the mischief that was felt. The Aligators, almost equally destructive, owing to the constant practice of bathing in the rivers, are regarded with nearly the same degree of religious terror. Fear is the father of superstition, by ignorance. These two animals prove the Sumatran's greatest scourge. The mischief the former commit, is incredible, whole villages being often depopulated by them. The people learn to reverence, as supernatural effects, the furious ravages of an enemy they have not resolution to oppose.

In characterising this work, it ought not to be forgotten, that the descriptions which the Author has presented to his Readers may, in general, be depended upon as exact. For the information he communicates fell chiefly under his immediate observation; and where he had no personal opportunities of knowledge, he was instructed by Gentlemen in the service of the East India Company, whose sources of intelligence were certain and sure, and whose characters were respectable.

The Author, in his composition, is concise and clear; but it cannot justly be pronounced of him, that he is an elegant and cultivated writer. Of this, he himself appears to be abundantly sensible; and he, accordingly, does not rest his reputation upon any merit of this kind. It appears to be his wish, to add 'one new and firm step in the arduous ascent of rising to a perfect knowledge of man;' and to this praise, we sincerely think, that he is fully entitled.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JUNE, 1783.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 14. *The Hypercritic* : 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

MR. James Elphinston complains loudly in this performance of the desperate malignity of the Monthly and Critical Reviews. He maintains that they have uniformly condemned his writings without justice; and he has taken the trouble to collect, and to print their criticisms, in order that he might demonstrate not only their inhumanity, but their insufficiency. Against the Westminster Magazine, in which there appeared a review of his Translation of Martial, he has likewise fulminated his disapprobation. From an examination of the reports or criticisms in question, in connection with the pieces of Mr. Elphinston, it appears not, however, to us, that his complaints are solidly founded. The idea he has conceived of his own importance is much too high; and he would have done a kindness to himself, if he had abstained from the publication of this pamphlet. We are afraid that it will confirm irrefragably, every thing which has been advanced on the subject of his literary demerit. The impartial reader will pity, and condemn him. It is not merely in argument, that he fails in the present remonstrance against the persons whom he pronounces to be hostile to him. He aims at wit and humour; and he attains neither. His style, too, as usual, is affected and disgusting.

To our Readers, it may be amusing, that we regale them with the subscribed protestation which Mr. Elphinston holds out against the Monthly and Critical Reviews.

‘ The MEMORIAL and PROTEST of JAMES-ELPHINSTON; in behalf of himself, and of the Public; consequently, in behalf of the MONTHLY and CRITICAL REVIEWS.

‘ Whereas the Printers and Publishers of certain periodical Pamphlets, entitled the *Monthly Review*, and the *Critical Review*; by themselves, or by others, whose writings have been respectively printed and published by them; have, these many years, in the said periodical publications; as appears, from the authentic documents here given; endeavored to defame, that is, to decry or ridicule, without showing cause; the successive literary labors, of the said Memorialist; to the certain detriment no less than regret of their Author, proportionable to the diminution of his influence with that much greater part of the Public; for whose improvement so wanted, and entertainment so due, those labours have been chiefly designed: The said Printers and Publishers are now solemnly obtested, for their own, rather than any other sake; to desist from so unnatural, injurious and scandalous, an abuse of British Liberty. For, after the ample and unbroken chain of evidence, which they, in violation of every ty of humanity, and in defiance of every conciliatory art, have here drawn unavoidably on themselves; if, in the Review of any future Work, they shall, by others, or themselves, be weak and wicked enough to re-attempt prejudgement or false inference; suppression

pression of the great parts, or dilatation of the small; wilfull misconstruction or misrepresentation; censure without criticism, or criticism without cause: or if they shall have again the insolence to assume the pert, the slippant; the sneer, or the flier, towards the said Memorialist, or any other Member of the Republic of Letters: the said *Reviews*, that might have been as acceptable as usefull to the Public, and proportionably advantageous to their Undertakers; must fall into universal contempt, and consequent incapacity of hurting, either the Community, or its ardent servant

Margaret-street N. 25.

JAMES ELPHINSTON.

Cavendish-square, May 29, 1783.

Art. 15. *Select Poems and Short Essays in Prose and Verse.*

By the Rev. Dr. Isaac Watts. 2s. Blamire.

There is here such a medley of metre and prose, of fanaticism and morality, of dulness and genius, as even the celebrity of the venerable name it bears, can hardly rescue from oblivion. We are seriously unable to divine the object or intention of such a motley compilation. It will certainly add nothing to the honour of the dead, and as little to the pleasure or utility of the living. It might for aught we know have amused the Editor, as there is no disputing about taste, but it can hardly repay either him or the bookseller, as poetry and religion are not now in fashion. There are, notwithstanding, some stanzas in one or two of the poems, which breathe the true spirit of Dr. Watts's poetry. The following from an Epitaph on Bigotry, concludes some very pretty verses, and is beautifully turned.

Shout at the grave, O Traveller!

Triumphant joys, that reach the skies,

Are here the justest obsequies.

Shout thrice! then flee a-far

The poisonous steams and stench of the sepulchre.

Go, turn thy face to Heaven, and pray

That such a hateful monster, never may

Obtain a resurrection day.

Art. 16. *The Saddle put on the Right Horse, &c.* By the Author of the Vindication of General Richard Smith. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

The Author professes to give, in this Pamphlet, an enquiry into the reason why certain persons have been denominated Nabobs, with an arrangement of those gentlemen into their proper classes, of real, spurious, reputed, or mushroom Nabobs, with a few reflections on the present state of our Asiatic affairs. And this the Author calls, *Putting the Saddle on the Right Horse*. If we may be allowed an opinion, it is, that our Asiatic horses are so sorely galled, as but seldom to bear a saddle, and it will be a work of time to determine on the merits of the gentlemen now under parliamentary investigation.

The Author, however, discovers much knowledge of his subject, and continues that peculiar strain of humour, which distinguishes his defence of General Richard Smith. We heartily agree with him in many points, and particularly in reprobating the conduct

Mr. Burke towards Mr. Hastings. Comparing it with his conduct on a late occasion, his candour sinks before us.

Art. 17. *Reflections on Usury.* 8vo. 1s. Faulder.

These Reflections are written by a Man who appears to understand the nature of undervalued annuities. The Pamphlet may probably awaken the attention of some public spirited Statesman, but we confess our hopes are not sanguine.

Art. 18. *A Letter to the Right Reverend the Lord Bishop of Landaff.* In answer to his Lordship's Letter to his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury. By a Country Curate, 4to. 1s. 6d. Wilkie.

It is to be regretted that personal invective and asperity should be so universally regarded as necessary adjuncts to modern controversy. We give credit to the ingenious Author of this elaborate answer to the Bishop of Landaff, for much wit and logical acuteness; but we are sorry he should have disgraced his performance by the same petulance and cavil, the same perverse and verbal misconstruction of his opponent, that we have already remarked in Mr. Cumberland's letter. We cannot help thinking that truth wants no such supporters, and that a good cause will speak for itself, even in plain language, and without calling in the laughers to its assistance. The bishop's proposals demanded a serious discussion, irony and quibble could only embarrass and obscure the subject, if indeed truth be the real object of these polemics.

We do not at all agree with this Author, who insinuates in his exordium, that among other causes, which contributed to the popularity, of the bishop's publication is "*merely that it proposes a change.*" We are far from thinking this at all the temper of the times, nor can it, we, apprehend, be proved from the fate of many proposed reformations in the state, though supported by the most respectable names, and by some of the acutest reasoning we have ever heard.

The truth is, in every thing the multitude are governed by custom; and not the least so in what regards religion. It is with the utmost reluctance they are brought to embrace any thing that is new, and they part with established prejudices only when convinced by woeful experience of their danger or inconvenience.

The Country Curate objects to the Bishop of Landaff's first proposal. That to level the church preferments would destroy the hopes and emulation of individuals. That the objections against *commendams* are ill-founded, the *officiating ministers* of livings held in *commendam*, being not inferior to the rest of the clergy; and even if the other clergy could *prove they had a right* to those livings, (which yet he denies,) the evil would not be very alarming, inasmuch as there is but little preferment held in *commendam*. That the influence of the *crown*, instead of being *diminished*, ought if possible to be *increased*; but that it is a vulgar error to suppose the right reverend bench under the influence of the crown.—That, in fine, the charge is ill-founded of the bishops not residing a sufficient time on their respective dioceses; and that the pursuit of preferment cannot be a hindrance to their residence; "it is neither more common nor more difficult, I presume (says the Author,) to solicit for a translation, than it is to be first made a bishop; and if this be the case,

you my Lord, furnish me with a proof that a bishoprick may be got without a town house."

The only weighty objection that we find in this letter to the second proposal of the bishop, is, that the means are *inadequate* to the end. "Your Lordship proposes, (says the Author,) to appropriate, as they become vacant, one third, or some definite part, of the incomes of the deanries, prebends, and canonries in the Kingdom, to the augmentation of small livings; leaving, however, no such dignity in the receipt of less than 100*l.* per ann. Well qualified as your Lordship appears to be for the task, it would have been obliging in you to have stated, as accurately as the nature of the case admitted, how much would have been added, by these means, to the revenue of the parochial clergy. As far as my own observation, or the communications of my friends enable me to speak on the subject, there are not more than 300, or at most 320 such dignities, and only about one half of these, would admit of any deduction. Excepting in the cathedrals of Canterbury, Westminster, St. Paul's, Windsor, Christ Church, and Durham; there is hardly another dignity in the list of ecclesiastical preferments, at all deserving to be considered as a *great object*. Suppose then all these, even the golden prebends of Durham, the rich deanries, and every other that will bear it, reduced according to your Lordship's standard, no calculation I can make brings the sum they would yield to 30,000 a year. This divided among the 5597 livings under 50*l.* a year, would be but 5*l.* a piece. But there is good reason to believe that, on a closer investigation, it would be found, that I am more than one half above the mark; as I have been studious, in this calculation, to give the advantage greatly against my own argument. In short, with all the trouble, odium, and danger of such a step, I do not think the addition to the poor livings would be more than a guinea or two a year."

On the merit of these several arguments we leave the public to determine. It is our business simply to *state*, not to *reason* upon or *refute* them. We are sorry that our profession as Reviewers, demands from us on this occasion, a more painful task. But we should hold ourselves wanting in our duty to the public, if we permitted to pass uncensured the mean insinuations, the perverse, and even puerile misconstructions, with which this pamphlet abounds. The general arguments against *reformation* are merely *ad verecundiam*, or rather *ad invidiam*, and we do not hesitate to pronounce it *absurd*, as well as *unfair* to compare the *liberal spirit* of Dr. Watson, with the furious zeal of the fanatical reformers in the last century. The following strokes are in the true spirit of Mr. Cumberland. In explaining to the late archbishop his motives for the active part he had taken in the business, the Bishop of Landaff adds, "this address, which it might have been thought great presumption in me before, may now, I hope be presented to your Grace, without incurring the imputation of intruding myself into matters not appertaining to my situation in life."—This genteel and modest apology our Author construes into "a charge of presumption against any man; beneath the rank of a bishop, who, not seeing the subject in the same light that you have done, should have the boldness to tell you
so."

fo." Certainly the Bishop could never mean such an insinuation; if we rightly remember, he has, on the contrary, invited every liberal mind to the open and honest discussion of the subject.

"I give your Lordship credit, "proceeds our Author," for your professions of disinterestedness. Yet, as your bishopric is, I believe, in point of income, among the lowest in the kingdom, had your disavowal of any sinister purposes been less peremptory than it is, minds less liberally disposed than your own might, perhaps not unnaturally, have suspected, that despairing to advance the shrub to the height of the cedar, you resolved to bring down the cedar to the shrub."—No man that is acquainted with the abilities and connexions of Dr. Watson, could really suspect him to be in a state of actual despair respecting translation: Besides, his bishopric is so well assisted by his other preferments, that he is by no means the poorest on the bench. Again, the bishop having paid a just compliment to the merits of the clergy of these kingdoms, subjoins, that he does not mean this compliment to the exclusion of the dissenting clergy, whom his Lordship thinks "*not inferior* to the clergy of the establishment either in learning or morals."—This, our letter-writer makes into a direct charge of heresy against the good bishop, as if he meant "to insinuate, that as they are *not inferior* to the clergy of the establishment, therefore an establishment is unnecessary." If the Reader would see a still grosser instance of *want of candour*, not to say *want of honesty*, he may consult page 3d and 4th of the pamphlet. This mode of conducting a controversy, on a serious and important subject, we must and do condemn; and had the letter writer but reflected how much such proceeding diminishes the credit of an Author in the public eye, he would not, we are certain, have so frequently descended to those little arts, which always disgrace a good cause and rarely serve a bad one.

If our Author be really a curate, we are well assured, he is not a *poor* curate; if he were, it would neither be natural nor creditable to speak so unfeelingly as he has done of his own situation. In the true spirit of christian humility, the *Country Curate* has ventured to propose a plan for the relief of the clergy, which plan is neither more nor less than that a *charitable contribution* be set on foot for that purpose. We are not of opinion (highly as our Author speaks of the charitable disposition of the times, we hope from *experience*,) that such a plan is likely to be productive; but supposing it were, we honestly confess, and with a zeal for the church, not inferior to that of any country curate in the kingdom, we had rather see the church even in its present necessitous and unpromising condition, than indebted for its support to the faint and uncertain exertions of solicited charity.

P O E T R Y.

Art. 19. *Ode on leaving South Carolina*, 1s. Dodsley.

In this Ode the ingenious Author has adopted the stanza of Hayley's Ode to Howard, which, though unequal to its excellent model, we have perused with pleasure and satisfaction.

As a specimen of its merit we present our Readers with the two following stanzas,

'Perish the man whose narrowed heart,
 Can bound the limits of his kind;
 But to one realm would bliss impart,
 And, but to that, contracts his mind!
 Blest be the soul that kindling glows
 To heighten joys, to lessen woes;
 Whose wide beneficence supplies,
 To Zembla's frosts, and Gambia's parching skies;
 The fires that gladden life, the springs whence pleasures rise!
 Yet still, unswerv'd, the patriot's breast,
 Burns to exalt his native land;
 For this he shuns ignoble rest,
 For this he nerves his daring hand;
 But, tho' his heart to glory swells,
 There ev'ry gentler virtue dwells,
 That gives humanity a grace,
 That binds by mutual charities, our race,
 Or gains, on nature's roll, for man superior place.'

MEDICAL.

Art. 20. *Select Cases of the Disorder commonly termed the Paralysis of the lower Extremities.* By J. Jebb, M. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

The benefit which medical students may derive from cases accurately and faithfully delineated are manifold and important. They form the best substitute for actual observation and practice; and by directing the attention of beginners to the most material symptoms, which of themselves, they might overlook or confound with others trifling or accidental, they render attendance upon the sick, far more improving than it would be without such guides. The description of the cases before us bears every mark of exactness and veracity. It is therefore scarce necessary to add that we recommend them to the perusal of medical readers. They are recent and strong confirmations of the powerful effects of issues in a disease considered as above the reach of medicine, before the Sydenham of surgery, happily for mankind, exerted his talents in the establishing a successful mode of cure. Besides the cases announced in the title, Dr. Jebb has added a curious instance of that uncommon disorder, the catalepsy, which he treated successfully, chiefly by the use of a spirituous infusion of the bark with gentian and orange peel.

Art. 21. *An Essay on the Principles and Manners of the Medical Profession.* By J. W. Newman. Dodsley.

This pamphlet is made up of trite and unconnected observations, expressed for the most part in affected language. It was composed as we are informed for the purpose of filling up the intervals of recovery from a dangerous illness, and of diverting the attention from brooding on some domestic calamities. This, the Author observes, is a reason, but not an excuse for his attempt. It had indeed been well for his reputation if he had been content with amusing himself without aspiring to entertain or instruct the public.

Art.

Art. 22. *A Treatise on the Venereal Disease.* By James Dunbar, jun. A. M. Surgeon in London, and Member of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. 2s. Cumberlege.

A Treatise on the Venereal Disease can serve only two purposes, the instruction of the faculty, or of the unlearned public. The Treatise before us cannot answer the first purpose, because there is not, from beginning to end, one single observation which a surgeon's apprentice would not blush to be thought ignorant of; and it cannot answer the last, because it is written in an affected stile of obsolete and unnecessary terms of art. The Author has, indeed, selected his materials with great *bonesty*; for in order to avoid the imputation of secret plagiarism he has quoted, at the bottom of the page, the respective Authors whose sentiments are here copied. What the Author's motives were in the compilation of this pamphlet we cannot say, but of its uselessness and imperfections we have so many proofs, that we do not recollect any treatise on the venereal disease from which less is to be learned.

Art. 23. *Practical Observations on the Human Teeth*; by R. Wooffendale, Surgeon Dentist, Liverpool. 8vo. 3s. 6d. J. Johnson.

His work is exceedingly crude and ill digested. A few observations here and there are just, because they are obvious to the youngest practitioner, but in endeavouring to adapt the whole to the capacities of all ranks, the Author is often trifling and inaccurate. A complete treatise on the teeth is much wanted, but it cannot be expected from an Author who refers us for cure to a secret *dentifrice* and *lotion*. This quackery is unworthy of a liberal mind, and yet our Author, while he recommends his own medicines, reprobates the use of other men's *dentifrices* and *lotions*. The Author has been at pains to divide his work into a great many chapters, but there are few of them which do not leave the Reader as ignorant as when he began; Mr. Wooffendale appears to know much concerning the teeth, but unless he communicates that knowledge, his writing *about it* and *about it* converts his book into an advertisement for his *dentifrice* and *lotion*. A well engraven plate of certain kinds of teeth is prefixed.

Art. 24. *A Guide to Health, Beauty, Riches and Honour.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hooper.

A very entertaining and well timed satire, but we tremble lest the infatuation here ridiculed be too powerful for any remedy short of the whipping post or the gallows. This guide to health, gentle reader, is neither more or less, than a collection of the principal quack advertisements concerning medicines, wives, places of entertainment, temple of Hymen, &c. &c. &c. which have infested the papers for a series of years. The collector has prefixed an eulogium replete with just satire. Some months ago we might have expected good effects from the exposition of quackery, but our hopes are now blasted, for in that astonishing wisdom which distinguishes our present financier, he has emancipated quacks from the imputation of vagrants, and for the sake of a trifling tax, has put them on a level with fair traders.

P O L I T I C A L.

Art. 25. *Reflections on the Preliminary and Provisional Articles.* 8vo. 1s. Robinson.

This pamphlet contains an apology for the peace. It is written with temper and art; and includes many observations which are pertinent and judicious.

Art. 26. *The Constitutions of the several Independent States of America; the Declaration of Independence; the Article of Confederation between the said States; the Treaties between his most Catholic Majesty and the United States of America; with an Appendix, containing an authentic Copy of the Treaty, concluded between their High Mightinesses the States General and the United States of America, and the Provisional Treaty.* Published by order of the Congress. Philadelphia Printed. London Reprinted: with an Advertisement by J. L. De Lolme. 8vo. 4s. Walker.

The papers contained in this publication, are not objects of literary criticism; and the best account that can be given of them is, that they are genuine. Monsieur de Lolme their Editor, observes very properly, 'that they may be considered as the *magna charta* of the United American States, and the code of their fundamental laws, and in short, the book which the opposite parties among them, will at all times claim in some shape or other, and the knowledge of which, is therefore necessary to such persons as wish to understand the present or future internal American politics.'

Art. 27. *Thoughts on a Reform in the Representation of the People, in the Commons House of Parliament.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

The intentions of this Author are certainly very commendable; and his observations on parliamentary corruption, are but too well founded. The particular plan of reform, in which he is solicitous, is as follows.

'I PROPOSE that the representation of the counties and boroughs should undergo these alterations:

'IN the election of Knights of the Shire the copyholders and lessees for a certain number of years to be admitted to vote, as freeholders do now, and subject to the same restrictive laws.

'AN addition of an hundred Knights to be chosen by all such persons, who have in no other right a voice in the election of a representative, who have attained the age of twenty-one, and are not chargeable to any parish as paupers.

'EVERY county to return one, two, or three, of these additional Knights, in proportion to the number of its unrepresented inhabitants.

'EVERY parish to keep a regular entry of the names of all such persons as have a right to vote, and none to be admitted to this right whose name is not duly registered.

'THE election of the hundred Knights to commence on the same day throughout the kingdom, at a general election.

'THE poll of the electors to be taken at the several parishes in which their names are registered, and to commence on the same day and at the same hour throughout the counties; the names of the electors

electors to be called over as chance might determine, by which means in a great measure they would be prevented attending the poll of any other parish.

' THE poll when concluded to be returned by the person or persons appointed to take it (a Justice of Peace or any other) to the Sheriff.

' To ascertain the rotten boroughs, and to extend the right of voting for them to as many neighbouring towns as will establish a certain number of voters.'

It is not our province to make any remarks on this plan, the spirit with which it is given is praise worthy; for a good citizen cannot be better employed than in deliberating for the emolument of his country. The language of the author is easy and perspicuous.

Art. 28. *The Order of Hereditary Succession to the Crown of these Kingdoms, on the Failure of immediate Heirs*, wherein the right of Inheritance, vested in the several English Families, lawfully descended from the Blood Royal of Great Britain, is deduced and successively attested. Inscribed to his Majesty. 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearsly.

It is impossible to view this extraordinary publication in any other light than that of a *momenta mori* to the Royal Family, who, thanks to God, are all in good health, and as likely to multiply and replenish the earth, as any of those royal or noble persons that swell this long list.

Art. 29. *The Case and Claim of the American Loyalists, impartially stated and considered*. Printed by order of their Agents. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

The Author, or Authors of this well digested publication, having represented the case of the American Loyalists, called upon, by the highest authority of the state, to withstand and suppress the rebellion, and in spite of the sanguinary laws of Congress, maintaining their allegiance to Great Britain, though unsupported by that power, and unprotected, proceed to describe their sufferings in the cause of loyalty, and to consider the claim of indemnification, which they have upon their fellow citizens. This claim is supported in the clearest and most satisfactory manner, by an appeal to the law of nature and nations, and in particular to multiplied laws and precedents in the history of Great Britain. They appeal "to the justice of their Sovereign and his Parliament, and of their fellow subjects of Great Britain, at whose instance, in support of whose sovereign right, and for whose sakes, they have lost and sacrificed all that men can possibly lose or suffer, life itself only excepted. And they make this appeal, under the firmest confidence in the liberality and equity of the nation, that the justice of their claim will be acknowledged, and a compensation be accordingly made."

Art. 30. *Observations on the Preliminary and Provisional Articles*: attempting to prove, from a comparative View of the Situation of this Country now, and at the Close of the late War, that they are equally, if not more beneficial to the true Interest of this Country, than the Terms procured by the Treaty in 1763. 8vo. 1s. Debet.

There are men of such gay fancies, and sanguine dispositions, that

that no public calamities can depress them. They rise with a surprising elasticity, under every stroke of public distress, and seem to draw vigour and spirits from the wounding steel. So long as America, and other dependencies remained united to this country, it was universally deemed a great prop to British wealth and grandeur. Now America is independent—we are better quit of it. The Writer of this pamphlet is persuaded, that the major part of the American loyalists, are perfectly satisfied with the terms that have been obtained for them: and, when he reflects on the wisdom and integrity of the ministers who made the peace, he exclaims with transport, “happy nation! Your interest is committed to the care of men, whose abilities are devoted to the service of true patriotism; you shall still hold your superiority, governed by the illustrious House of Hanover, with that moderation and equity, which distinguishes your laws of justice.”

Art. 31. *The Coalition; or an Essay on the Present State of Parties.* 8vo. 1s. Faulder.

This pamphlet is written with great vivacity: the Author shews, that the differences which created, and the feuds which embittered, the former separation between Lord North and Mr. Fox, were not merely personal, or solely relative to a few particular measures; but on the contrary, that they arose from a disagreement in the most essential principles, from a direct and constant opposition in measures, and from the most perfect repugnancy between their general systems of policy. Their coalition was the only possible means of gratifying the views of interest and ambition, and it was formed at the critical moment, when alone it could serve the purpose of ministerial importance, though till then rejected with mutual indignation. The Author therefore thinks, that he may be permitted to doubt, whether such a confederacy derived its origin from honourable motives. He is of opinion, that this coalition neither promises the harmony of friendship, nor the vigour of stability.

Art. 32. *A Letter on Parliamentary Representation; in which the Propriety of Triennial and Septennial Parliaments is considered,* inscribed to John Sinclair, Esq. M. P. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

The Writer of this letter thinks, with many other writers of good sense and moderation, that the principle of equal representation is foreign to the British constitution, and utterly inapplicable to it. Frequency of elections he considers, as by no means favourable to the liberty of the people, or the dignity of Parliament. He justly observes, that “whatever sober reformers may imagine, they will be no longer masters of the weight they mean to move, when once it gains upon them and hurries them down *the precipice*,” of democracy, confusion and anarchy we suppose, for he does not define any particular precipice. These are the only tolerable thoughts we have been able to pick out of this publication; the greater part of it being taken up with trite observations concerning the origin of the House of Commons, and the most fulsome expressions of adulation to John Sinclair, who is represented as a second *Solon* or *Lycurgus*.

Art. 33. *Consequences not before adverted to, which are likely to result from the late Revolutions of the British Empire.* With the probable effects upon the Territorial Possessions, the Commercial Inte-

Interests, Naval Strength, Manufactures, Population, Resources, landed Interest, and Public Funds of Great Britain; and a comparative View of the Strength, Resources and Public Credit of the late Belligerent Powers at the conclusion of the Peace. 1s. Wilkie.

A crowded title to a *little book* or a short pamphlet, always puts us in mind of a large pedestal to a diminutive statue, or an enormous portico to a small building. The Writer, however, is not altogether ignorant of his subject. We deny not that he has some parts, but must be of opinion, that politics is by no means the sphere in which they might have been exhibited to most advantage. *Who can decide where doctors disagree?* and we trust this Writer is not vain enough to imagine, that the public will appeal to him, from the dogmatical logomachies of a Fox and a Thurlow, or a North and a Shelburne. We agree with him, that our situation at the conclusion of the war, considered in relation to that of the other belligerent powers, entitled us to better terms. Peace notwithstanding was never more generally acceptable to all orders of people in this country. Some of the consequences he points out are probable enough: but we cannot admit them all; and we deem ourselves not a little happy to think the bulk of his gloomy and ominous apprehensions are by no means well founded.

Art. 34. *A Sequel to an Essay on the Origin and Progress of Government*, 1s. Cadell.

A more contemptible compilation of critical observations on the various abortive theories of speculative and chimerical statesmen, never disgraced the garrets of Grub-street, or the stalls of Moor-fields. Here, religion and politics, speculation and conjecture, hypothesis and system, an affectation of wit and a profusion of hard names, dance, as Junius observes in another case, through all the mazes of metaphorical confusion. The following will give the Reader some idea of our Authors stile and manner, and is perhaps one of the least exceptionable paragraphs in the whole pamphlet. Speaking of the present very critical posture of public affairs, he says 'there is a class of men from whom in the difficulties of the republick, much assistance is received and great effects produced, to the astonishment of ministers and managers of parties, to whom they are seldom known, but by their effects. They sit retired and quiet in their snug parlours, or old halls, and in general regard the intrigues and plots of statesmen, no more than they trouble themselves about the little mischievous tricks of their monks. They know it is the nature of the creatures, and look on with smiles and amusement at their playful or sober fallies, but when they perceive the animal grows dangerous, plagues the servants, bites the children, defiles the chapel, violates the sanctuary, and throws firebrands about the house; they seize a cudgel, and drive the impure animal to his den, and then leave him to clank his chains for amusement.'

D I V I N I T Y.

Art. 35. *Observations on the Nature of Oaths, and the Danger of multiplying them: in which Election Oaths are particularly considered.*

sidered. By the Reverend Robert Douglas, Minister of Galashiels, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dickson, Edinburgh. Johnson, London.

The ingenious Author of this pamphlet is animated with a lively zeal for the interests of religion and morality. Of the danger of oaths he complains with great propriety; and he has taken considerable pains to explain the nature of the election laws in Scotland, and the extreme abuses to which they lead. His style has a good deal of vigour; but he pushes his argument with a romantic integrity that bespeaks him ignorant of the world. The most considerable blemish of his performance is, the apparatus with which he introduces his remarks; and if we had not gathered from the title page of his publication, that he was a native of Great Britain, we should have conjectured this circumstance from the affectation of philosophy where it is unnecessary, from his introductory paragraphs concerning the progress of civilization.

Art. 36. *A Probation Sermon preached before the United Parishes of St. Magnus the Martyr, and St. Margret, New Fish Street, London, Jan. 12, 1783.* On a Vacancy in their Lectureship, and soon after the opening of their newly repaired and beautified Church. From Rev. xix. ver. 10. For the testimony of Jesus is the spirit of prophecy, 1s. Doddsley.

The common sense and discernment of these united parishes, by the choice which followed their approbation of this most deplorable, but most orthodox farrago, are here very forcibly and characteristically marked. It would seem as if the Reverend Author had exhibited this test of their literary and religious taste with the sarcastic view of exposing them to ridicule and derision. The fact however to which this publication refers, evidently shews how wretchedly the duties of lectureship are sometimes discharged, and by what strange intrigues the lowest and most sordid who can struggle into holy orders frequently obtain them. The parishes where such vacancies happen, generally have them advertised from the desk, as a sort of prizes for which candidates are invited to contend. But what chance has a man of taste and letters to succeed, where rhapsodies of puritanical dulness are thus preferred to the simple and undisguised dictates of soberness and truth.

The Author modestly dedicates his discourse to those before whom it was delivered, who according to him, 'when he was overwhelmed with a series of uncommon misfortunes, and laboured under the heaviest load of oppression, with the addition of the most cruel and unjust aspersions from unprovoked enemies, and was in consequence utterly deserted by all those who in his better days stiled themselves his friends, were pleased with a most unexampled generosity and politeness, to shew him not only particular marks of their kindness, but moreover without any personal solicitation or canvass for their votes, voluntarily to honour them with their choice.'

This tribute to humanity may for aught we know, be very justly earned, and the professions of gratitude thus profusely and ostentatiously made, will undoubtedly be literally realized. *For the Rev. Mr. Jones is an honourable man!* Perhaps the best account of this religious trader is to be had of the graziers in the fenna not far from Cambridge, the butchers in Smithfield market, or the bankers in the

the city. From these channels of information, facts will certainly appear sufficient to convince the good electors at the end of London Bridge, that they could not do better, than chuse a lecturer from the King's Bench prison, or have a more proper instructor in the great rules of righteousness and fair dealing than, one so signally attached in all his private transactions to *candour, honesty, and uprightness*. Let us hope in the true spirit of christian charity, that such an inquisition will terminate equally to their credit and his emolument, at least we may reasonably presume the religionists, who go by the name of *methodists*, in general may ultimately reap as much honour from the names, the patronage, and the virtues of a *Madan*, a *Hill*, and a *Jones*, as they did from those of a *Dodd*, a *Ruffen*, and a *Maxwell*.

Art. 37. *Free and apposite Observations on one very evident and indecent Cause of the present rapid Decline of the Clerical Credit and Character*: in a Letter addressed to the Right Reverend the Lord Bishop of Chester, 8vo. Johnson.

The bishop, it would seem, had advanced to the sacred function, a person not only ignorant of science, but of the learned languages. This person had been employed in some of the humbler stations of life. And the writer of the observations complains bitterly, (though, by very coarse and vulgar irony, he affects to suppose the bishop blameless of the matter,) that the sacred profession is considered as "compatible with all stations, and congenial with all dispositions; by the doctor or the drawer, the sanguine or the saturnine, the learned or the unlearned," the tradesmen that have been dignified with the sacerdotal office he calls "a vile group," and laments that "a server of ale should be advanced to serve at the altar," the clergy, he says may without vanity lay claim to as much antiquity as the order of English and British peers; yet he observes, with great indignation, that whilst the pretensions of some who are raised by their sovereign to the peerage, "are invidiously scrutinized and called in question, to prevent their admission into the *House of Lords*, no qualifications are required in those who are admitted members of the *House of God*." He describes the person put in orders by the bishop of Chester, as a man of a cold constitution, a circumstance which, "without the borrowed aid of principle, preserves him as free from immoderate vice, as the native stupor of his head will for ever render him guiltless of wit." To such a *blockhead*, Dr. Warburton, he affirms, would have been utterly impracticable, and would have "sacrificed his mitre, and have been mulcted at the expence of his life, rather than have soiled his *clastic*, (not his sacred,) his *clastic* hand by abject and impure contact, with a head which nature and education had united to form a heteroclite in all its powers of apprehension, penetration, and intelligence." While this writer magnifies the importance of learning, he is studious to display his own by a profusion of Latin and Greek quotations, from the classics and the christian fathers. Even the new testament he cites in the original.

Learning and genius are certainly necessary in certain orders of the church, but not in all. A modest, humble, devout and christian character is as great, and as necessary, and an ornament as much

much wanted in the church as sharp wit and great human knowledge. St. Paul observes, that in the church *there is a diversity of gifts*. The publication under review is petulant, immodest, indecent, and pedantic.

Art. 38. *The Sentiments of a Member of the Church of England, respecting the Doctrine of the Trinity*: or, an Address to John Disney, D. D. F. S. A. on the late publication of his Reasons for resigning the rectory of Panton, and Vicarage of Swinderby in Lincolnshire; and quitting the established Church. By W. H. a Layman, 4to, 1s. H. Trapp.

The sentiments of this layman we are afraid will not bring back Dr. Disney, into the bosom of the church. Did he imagine that the Doctor, who seems to have been most anxiously occupied for a length of time about the doctrine of the Trinity, was unacquainted with the texts of scripture which he has produced in favour of that dogma, and which have before appeared in hundreds of publications? It was uncandid to impute views of emolument or ambition to a person, who, as far as man can judge of human actions, has quitted no inconsiderable preferment for conscience sake.

Art. 39. *Animadversions upon the present Profanation of the Christian Sabbath*. With an earnest Persuasive to Persons in Authority to attempt the Suppression of that scandalous Abuse. In a Letter to the Right Honourable the Lord Mayor of London. By the Minister of a City Parish, 8vo. 6d. J. F. and Charles Rivington.

This well-meant publication appears to come from the heart of the Author. We sincerely wish it may produce the intended effect, but our wishes are warmer than our hopes.

Art. 40. *Curfory Remarks on a late fanatical Publication, entitled a full Detection of Popery, &c.* Submitted to the candid Perusal of the liberal Minded of every Denomination, 1s. Faulder.

These *Remarks* are not incorrectly written. The reasoning seems in general fair and conclusive, the language is easy and flowing, and sometimes forcible and elegant. But in an age like the present, cursed with a penury of literary merit, we never meet a single spark of genius unnecessarily wasted without regret. Why at so much pains exposing the fallacy and danger of a performance which carries its own refutation along with it, and the superlatation of which could scarcely escape the meanest and most prejudiced Reader. This appears to us the very quixotism of theological controversy, and the greatest knight errant in the days of ancient chivalry, could do no more than fight where no injuries were received or apprehended, or conjure up giants, monsters, that he might enjoy the pleasure of destroying them. What our Author observes of one passage, applies with exquisite propriety to the whole of this contemptible performance, and pointedly satirizes the impertinence of his own. 'It is really too ridiculous for ridicule itself, and deserves nothing but the most scornful contempt.' In our opinion he ought not to have said another word on the subject, and it certainly contains for that reason, the only applause to which his present labours are entitled.

Art. 41. *Sermons*, by Humphry Whistlaw, A. M. 8vo. 2 vol. 8s. Law.

The sermons are explanatory of the following subjects, viz. *The necessity and importance to religion, of forming right apprehensions of God: God's government of the world; the original end and design of civil government; with the happiness of our own constitution; the original religion of man; christian perfection; of forming an idea of God; a view of human nature; of loving God; the right of trying the spirits; of selling what we have and giving to the poor; steadfastness in religion; persecution founded in wrong notions of God and religion; the righteousness of the Scribes and Pharisees; charity; the nature and design of the christian religion; of God's reconciling the world to himself; of receiving the grace of God in vain; the great advantage of christianity; the difference between being after the flesh, and after the spirit; of working out our own salvation, and God's working in us; the true nature of the kingdom of God; of mercy being more acceptable than sacrifice; the end and use of the Lord's supper; of debts, particularly the great debt of love; of studying to be quiet; of doing our own business; the duty of servants; the folly and atheism of sin; the qualifications necessary to a holy life.*

These are very sensible discourses; and, though they cannot boast a superior elegance of style, are well calculated to promote the cause of truth, virtue, and religion.

Art. 42. *A Vindication of the Observations on the Decline of the Clerical Credit and Character.* By the Author, 8vo. 1s. 6d. J. Johnson.

A particular fact * alluded to by the Author of the *Observations*, &c. produced an answer to that pamphlet, to which the present publication is a reply. The abilities of this anonymous writer as a controversialist, make us regret that they are wasted on a *personal* attack. In a dispute of this kind the public cannot be interested; and that acrimony which generally pervades it gives, for the most part, unfavourable impressions of the disputants. The present Author accuses his adversary of imbecillity and malevolence; and treats him throughout with such severity and *hauteur*, that we could be almost persuaded that the ghost of Warburton had directed his pen. A correspondent in the *Monthly Review*, who had attacked the Author of these *Observations*, is treated with as little ceremony by this vigorous and formidable combatant. A further account of this pamphlet is unnecessary, as the subject is not new to the public.

* That a person, who had been waiter at an inn, and possessing none of the necessary qualifications for the clerical office, had, notwithstanding, been ordained, for the purpose of holding a certain living.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

(Continued from our last.)

THIS Month exhibits to the world a proof, that it is in the nature of Government to encroach on the liberties of the people. The present Ministry were exalted to the power which they now enjoy, by popular favour. OEconomy, and a regard for the rights and interests of the people, were the plausible pretences by which they acquired that favour, and rose to that power. But their conduct has given the lie to their professions; their first object, as might indeed have been expected, is not the ease and prosperity of the nation, but the stability of their own power. A tax more oppressive to the interests of a commercial people, than that on *Receipts*, could not be devised. It cramps trade, and furnishes a thousand opportunities of artifice, both with regard to private affairs, and those of the public. But experience had fully demonstrated, that taxes of this kind were productive: therefore Ministry sacrificed the interests of commerce to their own convenience. The late Prince of Wales, Father to his present Majesty, with the incumbrance of a numerous progeny, enjoyed only forty thousand pounds a year. It was reserved for a Ministry that boasted of their oeconomy, nay parsimony, to meditate a demand for a youth, not twenty-one years of age, of a far larger extent, and unprecedented, in the most flourishing period of national finance. For, if the most uniform and confident reports may be credited, it was their intention to have reduced the authority of the Crown, and to have established the standard of filial ingratitude, and resistance to the Sovereign, by a Second or New Court, supported by one hundred thousand pounds out of the Civil List. The nation is not so blind as not to see this conduct: nor so insensible to consistency, to propriety, and virtue, as not to resent it. It is a weakness incident to human nature, to imagine that mankind either do not perceive our frailties; or, that if they see them, they see them with indulgence. Ministers seldom, if ever, are aware of the fruits which infallibly spring up from the seeds of their deviation from repeated promises, and from public virtue.

Under the same head, we may rank, those arts by which Administration has been studious to prove to the nation, that *the Loan* is not disadvantageous to the Public. The *Subscribers* are not supported, as formerly, by the Bank of England. Hence an unusual demand of money: and hence the lowness of *Script*, and of the *Funds* in general. It is not often, however, that the artifice of Ministers is borne with greater patience. Few sympathize with the sorrows of Money-scriveners, whose aim it is to fatten on the spoils of the State.

The ardour for political reformation gains strength in Scotland, and amuses men of observation with conjectures concerning the consequences. As in natural bodies there is a proportion between action and re-action; so in political societies, the resistance of the governed, when once excited, is in proportion to the oppressions which occasioned the revolt. The people of Scotland, accustomed to the yoke, bear it with patience, until either the extremity of

suffer.

suffering obliges, or the contagion of example invites them, to do themselves justice. But a resolution, once formed, is kept with invincible perseverance. And if we may judge of the character of a nation from that of a *mob*, the Scotch have, in their nature, a perseverance and steadiness, unknown in most countries of the world. From this account of the Scotch nation, it is reasonable to predict, that the spirit of political reformation, which has arisen in that part of the island, and which, we are well informed, daily increases, will produce more important consequences, than the same spirit in England, where the people are every day complaining of Government, every day forming schemes of resistance, and every day reconciled with their situation. If the Scotch obtain not the redress for which they wish, there is not a doubt, that matters must be decided by superior force, before they return to the tranquil paths of wonted obedience.

Ireland exhibits a proof and example of the danger of innovation in political affairs. The Volunteer Associations controul the Parliament of that kingdom: and the leading men, who emancipated their country from the tyranny of England, lament that they are governed by the turbulence and folly of a democracy.

In the course of this month, the Continent has furnished but little matter for speculation. Two Ladies, the one on the borders of the Tagus, the other by the Gulph of Finland, shew, by their conduct, how unjust is the *salic* law of France; and by their commercial regulations prove, that the sword of state is committed without impropriety into the hands of females. The King of Sweden, by taking off, or lightening the duties on commodities imported from America, shews, how sensible he is of the advantages to be derived from the late great revolution, and reminds Great Britain of her humiliation.

In the east of Europe the clouds continue to thicken, and threaten a dreadful storm. The neighbouring Empires of Russia and Turkey, the one, like an Hercules, formidable in his cradle, the other, though advanced in years, yet retaining the *flamina* of a vigorous constitution, are on the eve of a war, the consequences of which will be important in the history of the world. The anticipations of most men give victory and glory to the Russians. It is not easy, however, to predict the effects which the exertions of war may produce in their formidable rival. No empire in the world is so fertile by nature in all the resources of war, as Turkey: and calamity and danger may revive that enthusiasm in religion, and in arms, that in former times rendered the Ottoman Power formidable to the nations. The contest will be the more equal, if what is reported be true, that the Grand Vizier, who is a man of great abilities, has had the address to engage in the interests of his nation, the Court of Persia. It was generally believed, that the Russians and Imperialists were to join their standards, for the purpose of expelling the Turks from Europe. The Vizier alarmed the fears, and operated, it is said, on the superstition of the Persian. If these things be so, the sphere of the balance of power is more extended than ever. Whether it be, that the Emperor dreads the interference of Persia, or that of Prussia, it is understood that this aspiring Prince

Prince is to keep on foot an army of observation, to watch for advantages, but not immediately to commence offensive war.

A peace with the Mahrattas, seems to establish the affairs of England in India. The vigour and judgment of Governor Hastings have done him immortal honour. If we had had such a Governor, or Commander in Chief in America, that continent might still have formed a part of the British empire.

America, that fertile source of observation, begins to open a field of speculation to the philosopher, to the merchant, to the manufacturer, to the labourer, to all who have the power of industry, and the want of employment. The majority of Congress, we are well informed, and this, as far as we know, has not yet been made public, are indeed actuated, in their conduct and views towards the Loyalists, by that liberality and moderation, which is inspired by the progress of commerce, and the advancement of knowledge. But the Provincial Assemblies betray a narrowness of mind, a bigotry, and a cruelty, which bespeak the innate fury of men uncivilized by knowledge, inflamed by the prejudices of education and custom; and, on the whole, are governed by self-interest and animal ferocity. Certain Members of Congress have taken advantage of this disposition, to raise themselves to power and importance. They inflame the passions of the vulgar. They manage the elections in the different provinces, and, by their conformity to the conduct of the discontented Members in the House of Commons in England, consolidate the foundations of the science of politics.

In the conduct of the Americans, we have occasion to contemplate that fluctuation of disposition, which characterizes the populace of all nations. The Bostonians, at first, persecuted the returning Loyalists with unrelenting fury. A few Leaders, who united the feelings of compassion with the powers of eloquence, persuaded them to reverse their sanguinary laws, and to receive their fugitive brethren with kindness. The disposition, however, of the North Americans to Englishmen, is, in general, still hostile. Thus the Dutch, in the reign of Phillip III. of Spain, though emancipated by the truce, from the power of their oppressors, still dreaded that power, and therefore hated the Spaniards.

It is not without peculiar propriety that a Literary Journal, on the subject of politics, remarks the prescience of philosophy, in the great concerns of nations. Abbé Raynal, a name dear to all ingenious men, fortold, many years ago, that should the thirteen provinces of North America ever be dis severed from Great Britain, Nova Scotia, or as the French call it, *Acadia* would furnish an asylum, and be resorted to by multitudes. It now appears, that his conjectures were well founded. Multitudes, we are well informed, at this period, resort to Nova Scotia: of the climate, soil, and history of which we shall give some account in our next number.

I N D E X

TO THE

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS REVIEWED, AND THE REMARKABLE PASSAGES EXTRACTED FROM THEM.

SEE ALSO THE CONTENTS.

A

ABBERATION of the fixed stars, experiment for determining the, 289.
Academical News, 257.
Address, to the people of England on a reformation in Parliament, 249. To the people of Great Britain on the independence of America, 253.
Adventures of a Rupee, 159.
Air, fixed and inflammable, experiments on the respiration of, 347.
Alanson's Observations on Amputation, 317.
Aitkin's elements of the theory and practice of physick and surgery, 230.
America, revolution of, by the Abbé Raynal, 42. Recovery of, demonstrated to be practicable, 63.
American colonies, comparative view of, and the mother country, 25.
American independence, consolatory thoughts on, 333.
American Wanderer, 417.
Anderjyn, Dr. his history of France, vol. IV. and V. 83. His account of the intrigues of the French court at settling the regency, on the death of Henry IV. 91. Singular sentiment in his dedication, 95.
Andrew's analysis of the principal duties of social life, 164.
Anglesca militia, memoirs of, 421.
Antiquarian Society of Scotland, letter from the Preses of, on the opposition made to their charter, 425. Copy of their petition to the King, 326. Petition referred to the Lord Advocate, 427. Memorial from the University in opposition to their petition, 428. From the Philosophical Society, 429. From the Curators of the Advocates Library, 430. Memorial in defence of their petition, 431. Their petition complied with, 437.

ENG. REV. Vol. I:

Antiquarian Society of London, miscellaneous tracts of, vol. VI. 488.
Antiquities, treatise on the study of, 16. advantages resulting from the study of, 17.
Archæological dictionary, 162.
Amstrong on the cure of the gonorrhæa in females, 338.
Arteries, pulsation of, conjectures concerning the cause of the, 346.

B

Baratarian inquest, 409.
Basille, translation of Mr. Linguet's memoirs of, 501.
Bawd, the, a poem, 424.
Beattie's dissertations, 449.
Bell's surgery, 400. His explanation of the symptoms attending a wound or prick in the nerves or tendons, 401. Curious surgical operation described, 403.
Bengal language, Halhead's grammar of, 5. Derived from the antient Sanscrit, 6. Great importance of a thorough knowledge of it, 10.
Bergman sciagraphia regni mineralis, 390.
Bergman, Sir T. translation of his essay on the usefulness of chemistry, 504.
Bibliotheca Crostiana, 163.
Bibliotheca topographica Britannica, No. VII. 123.
Birth, an account of a monstrous one, 288.
Black's historical sketch of medicine and surgery, 303.
Bonnet (œuvres) d'histoire naturelle, & de philosophie, 236.
Bristol, Bishop of, his sermon on 30th January 1783, before the Lords, 415.
British Empire, consequences likely to result from the late revolution in, 520.
Brutus, account of the death of, by Dr. Ferguson, 326.

O o

Buffon's

I N D E X.

- Buffon's* natural history, translation of, 192.
- Burgess* of Ludlow, six letters to the, 409.
- C.
- Calabria* in Sicily, oppression of the Barons of, described, 314.
- Canon* law of England, the source of it, 484.
- Calderona*, Don Roderigo de, Count of Oliva, his fall and death, 465.
- Capricious* lady, a comedy, 227.
- Cassiterides*, chronicle of the kingdom of, 409.
- Cecilia*, a novel, 14.
- Chambers's* estimate of the comparative strength of Britain, 129.
- Characters* of parties in the British government, 68.
- Chatbam*, Earl of, history of his life, 141. Apology for his change of principles, *ibid.* His indisposition in the House of Lords previous to his death, described, 143.
- Chemistry*, discoveries in, respecting the formation of silicious matter, 154. Of the absorption of fixed and other kinds of air, 155. Of the acid of sugar in galls, 156. Of converting water into dephlogisticated air, 157. The acid obtainable from fat, 284. Phosphoric acid extracted from gypsum, 346.
- Chiffersfield*, Lord, his art of pleasing, 157.
- Chinese* hemp seed, experiments with, 288.
- Church* livings, plan for rendering their incomes more equal, 292.
- Clerical* credit and character, observations on the decline of, 523. Vindication of, 525.
- Clinton*, Sir Henry, his narrative, 70. His observations on Lord Cornwallis's answer, 414.
- Coalition*, the, 320.
- Colonial* governments, political reflections on, 408.
- Concordance*, a new one, 414.
- Constitutional* guide to the people of England, 251.
- Coombe* Wood, a novel, 256.
- Cork*, Countess of, remarks on her trial, 61.
- Cornwallis*, Lord, his answer to Sir H. Clinton's narrative, 170.
- Corrætor's* remarks on his Majesty's speech, 63.
- Country* Curate, his letter to the Bishop of Landaff on the proposed reform, 513.
- Cumberland's* mysterious husband, a tragedy, 144. Interesting scene in it, 150. His letter to the Bishop of Landaff, 470.
- Cunningham's* historical account of the rights of election, 115.
- Cythera*, congress of, 420.
- D.
- Dancer's* history of the expedition against Fort San Juan, 378.
- Daphhoff*, Princess of, appointed President of the Academy of Sciences at Petersburg, 257.
- Dowes's* letter on the nature and extent of supreme power, 410.
- Debts*, public, state of them, by Lord Stair, 248.
- Dialogus* on the actual state of parliament, 250.
- Disney's* reasons for quitting the church of England, 163.
- Dissertations* moral and critical, by Dr. Beattie, 449.
- Distillation* in vacuo, scheme for, 345.
- Distress*, a poem, by R. Noyes, 165.
- Dog-eaters*, account of a town of, in the Two Sicilies, 313.
- Douglas's* reports of cases in the King's Bench, 199. His observations on the nature of reports, 200.
- Doulcet's* cure of the puerperal fever, 316.
- Dyer*, Rev. Mr. J. account of him, 123.
- E.
- Ecclesiastical* patronage, enquiry into the principles of, 338.
- Egan's* general exchanger, 422.
- Election*, historical account of the rights of, 115.
- Electricity*, mode of rendering the weakest very sensible, 483.
- Elements* of jurisprudence, lectures on, 484.
- Elliot's* elements of natural philosophy, 125.
- Enquiry* concerning the military force proper for a free nation, 334.
- Essays* and letters on the most important and interesting subjects, 421.
- Essay*, on republican principles, 409. Sequel to an, on the origin and progress of government, 521.
- F.
- Facts*, and their consequences, by Lord Stair, 65.
- Faculty* of Medicine at Paris, their address on the birth of a Dauphin, 345.
- Family* Picture, 255.
- Farmer's* night-cap, 159.
- Farmer*, on the prevalence of the worship of human spirits in the antient heathen nations, 393. Proof of it, from the heathen sepulchres, 396.
- Fashionable* follies, a novel, 295.
- Ferguson*, Dr. his history of the Roman Republic, 185, 322. His account of the

I N D E X.

- the corruption of Rome at the time of Cataline's conspiracy, 187. Of the death of Cæsar, 189. Of the resignation of Sylla, 324. Of the death of Brutus, 326.
- Fish-women* of Paris, their address on the birth of a dauphin, 345.
- Flowers* of literature, 157.
- Foley*, Lieut. Henry, extract from the life of, 61.
- Ford's* sermon on charity, 416.
- Fotbergill*, Dr. his works, 105.
- Fox*, Mr. letter in defence of him and others, 67.
- Frailties* of fashion, 61.
- Franklin*, Dr. account of him, 28.
- Free Parliaments*; in answer to modern reformers, 249.
- G.
- Gibraltar*, propriety of retaining it, considered, 251.
- Gordon*, Hon. Col. Cosmo, his trial, 63.
- Gordon*, Lord George, serious answer to his letters to Lord Shelburne, 251.
- Great-Britain*, history of, during the administration of Lord North, 23.
- Gregory* conspectus medicinæ theoreticæ, 233.
- Guide*, to health, beauty, riches and honour, 517.
- H.
- Halbead's* grammar of the Bengal language, 5.
- Hastings*, W. Esq; his narrative of the late transactions at Benares, 56.
- Henry IV.* of France, his great preparations against the house of Austria, 461.
- Heroic* epistle to Lord Sackville, 159.
- Hinckley*, history and antiquities of, 123.
- Hippocrates*, his opinions and practice, 304.
- Historical* fragments of the Mogul empire, 212.
- History*, of Lord North's administration, 23. Of Oxfordshire, specimen of, 49. Of France, by Dr. Anderson, 89. Of the life of the Earl of Chatham, 141. Of the progress and termination of the Roman republic, 185, 322. Of Philip III. King of Spain, 361, 460. Of the English law, 380. Of the revolt of Ali Bey, 418.
- Hoffman's* practice of medicine, translation of, by W. Lewis, 368. Table of contents of, 370. Causes and treatment of hæmorrhages, 372.
- Holcroft's* sceptic, a poem, 135. His family picture, 255.
- Holy Cross*, Salop, extract from the parish register of, 288.
- Home's* examination of the efficacy and innocency of solvents, 337.
- Hospitals*, observations on the air of, 319.
- Hunter's* Nummorum Veterum descriptio, 33.
- Hypercritic*, the, by J. Elphinston, 511.
- Jebb's* cases of the paralysis of the lower extremities, 516.
- Imagination*, a lively one, the utility of it, 452.
- Inglefield*, Capt. his narrative of the loss of the Centaur, 418.
- Innes's* fourteen discourses on practical subjects, 414.
- Innes* on the venereal disease, 517.
- Intrigue*, story of one, 296.
- Johnson's* life of Hammond, observations on it, 158.
- Ippopaidia*, a poem, 423.
- Ireland*, list of the absentees of, 329.
- Julius Cæsar*, account of his death, by Dr. Ferguson, 189.
- Jury*, trial by, account of its origin, 383.
- K.
- King's* thoughts on the peace, and emigration to America, 411.
- Kindred*, attachments of, from Dr. Beattie's essay on, 454.
- Kirwan's* experiments on the specific gravities, and attractive powers of saline substances, 477.
- L.
- Landaff*, Bishop of, his letter to the Archbp. of Canterbury, on the distribution of church temporalities, 290.
- Lasters*, genuine copy of one found near Strawberry Hill, 59. On a variety of subjects, 61. One in defence of Mr. Fox and others, 67. To the first Belfast Company of Volunteers, 70. To Lord Viscount Beauchamp, 71. To the Earl of Shelburne on the legislative rights of Ireland, 252. To the same on the peace, *ibid.* To the Livery of London, 334. Four from the Dean of Gloucester to the Earl of Shelburne, 374. Six to the Burgesses of Ludlow, 409. One to a patriot Senator, 413. From Zeno to the Citizens of Edinburgh, 498. On parliamentary representation, 520.
- Lincoln Castle*, description of it, 490.
- Litchfield* Botanical Society, their translation of Linnæus's *système végétabilium*, 30.
- Literary* curiosities, 343.
- Locke*, Mr. accused by Dean Tucker of having been deeply engaged in Monmouth's rebellion, 376.
- Love* fragments: a series of letters, 60.
- Loyalists*, American, their case and claim stated, 519.

I N D E X.

M.

- MAdan*, Mrs. her progress of poetry, 161.
Man in the moon, or travels in the lunar regions, 494.
Marine scurvy, remarks on the nature and causes of, 169.
Marsden's history of the island of Sumatra, 507.
Mason's translation of Du Fresnoy's art of painting, 246.
Medicinal waters in the county of Essex, enquiry and experiments into the properties and effects of, 335.
Medicine, danger of its being corrupted by modern improvements, 234.
Mentors, the two, a modern story, 419.
McFarlan's enquiries concerning the poor, 220.
Ministerial anarchy, observations on, 407.
Minors's practical thoughts on amputation, 337.
Mogul empire, historical fragments of, 212.
Morattoe empire in India, history of its formation, 212.
Murray, General, sentence of the Court Martial on, 407.

N.

- Naples*, description of the manners and customs of the lower class of people in, 310.
Navy, royal, enquiry into the legality of encreasing it by subscriptions for building county ships, 407.
Nerves or tendons, Bell's account of the symptoms of pricks or wounds in, 401.
 His method of cure by a surgical operation when impracticable by medicine, 403.
Newman, J. W. his essay on the principles and manners of the medical profession, 515.
Newton, Right Rev. T. his works, 35.
 His reasoning on eternal punishment, 39. Extracts from his life, 40.
Nicholson, W. his introduction to natural philosophy, 505.
Nutritive vegetables, observations on such as may be substituted in the place of ordinary food, 167.

O.

- OArts*, observations on the nature of, 521.
O'Brien's lusorium, 62.
Osce, to the Earl of Effingham, 58.
 On the change of administration, 256.
 On the peace, 340. On leaving South Carolina, 515.
Ogilvie's enquiry into the causes of infidelity and scepticism, 386. His address to unbelievers, 387.
Oratory, antient and modern, compared, 495.

Oxfordshire, specimen of a history of, 49.
 P.

- Paine's* letter to the Abbé Raynal on the affairs of North America, 46.
Painters, rules for their conduct, 247.
 Remarks on the colouring and composition of the antient, 280.
Park's method of treating disrases of the joints of the knee and elbow, 337.
Parliamentary representation, inadequacy of it stated, 411.
Patriot Senator, letter to a, 413.
Peace, remarks on the report of a, 66.
 Provisional and preliminary treaties of, considerations on, 332. Candid and impartial considerations on, ibid.
 Thoughts on the difficulties the people of England will be left in by the, 411.
Philosophical communications, 153.
 News, 345.
Poem to the memory of the late Sir J. Clerke, Bart. 167.
Polite literature, introduction to the study of, 418.
Political memoirs, 66.
Political squabble, a poem, 255.
Poor, enquiries concerning them, 220.
 The undeserving, bad consequences of supporting them, 221. Whether the children of, should receive a literary education or not, 123. Summary of a plan for better providing for, 225.
 Twenty minutes observations on a better mode of providing for, 416.
Popery, remarks on a late publication entitled, a full detection of, 524.
Pownal, T. his treatise on the study of antiquities, 16. His observations on the books of Moses, 18.
Preliminary and provisional articles, reflections on, 513. Observations on, 519.
Prentiss's narrative of a shipwreck on the island of Cape Breton, 420.
Pringle's history of the corruptions of christianity, 205.

R.

- RAn*, an account of a new kind of, 282.
Raynal, Abbé, strictures on his position concerning the sterility of North America, 29. The revolution of America by, 42. Letter addressed to him on the affairs of North America, 46.
Recess, or a tale of other times, 417.
Reres's history of the English law, 380.
Relaxation of human bodies, thoughts on, and the misapplication of the bark, 168.
Remarks on the letters of an American Farmer, 252.
Renny's treatise on the venereal disease, 339.
Reply to Sir H. Clinton's narrative, 170.
Report

I N D E X.

- Report of the proceedings of the York Committee*, 453.
- Representation*, thoughts on a reform in, 518.
- Review of Mrs. Crawford and Mrs. Sidons in the character of Belvidera*, 162.
- Reviews*, Mr. Elphinston's Memorial and protest against them, 511.
- Roberts's* legendary tales, 300.
- Roman republic*, history of the progress and termination of, by Dr. Ferguson, 185, 322. Corruption of, at the time of Cataline's conspiracy, 187.
- Royal Society*, philosophical transactions of, vol. LXXII. 282, 477.
- S.
- Sabbath*, Christian, animadversions on the profanation of, 524.
- Saddle on the right horse*, 512.
- Saunders's* observations on the red Peruvian bark, 307.
- Savoy*, Charles Emanuel, Duke of, character of him, 462.
- Saussure's voyages dans les Alpes*, 106.
- School for Scandal*, a comedy, 96. Interesting scene in it, 97.
- Scotte's* treatise on the tynochus atrabiliosa, 336.
- Scoriae* from iron works, account of, 288.
- Scotland*, the landed gentlemen of, address to, 412.
- Scott's* elements of geometry, 423.
- Serious matter* for the consideration of Members of Parliament, 410.
- Sermon*, a probation one, 522.
- Sevagi*, founder of the Morattoe empire, his history, 212. His death and character, 215. His son taken and murdered by Aurengzebe, 218.
- Shakespeare*, picturesque beauties of, 127.
- Shanscrit* language, its antiquity, 6.
- Shelburne*, Lord, defence of him, 64.
- Reply to the defence of, 65. Word at parting to, *ibid*.
- Sheldrake's* remarks on Brand's chirographical essays, 338.
- Sheridan's* address to the public, 420.
- Siberian* anecdotes, a novel, 60.
- Sinclair's* hints to the public, in answer to Lord Stair, 413.
- Smellie's* translation of Buffon's natural history, 192.
- Smith's* discourses on the beatitudes, 163.
- Smith*, Gen. Rd. vindication of him, 334.
- Sonnets* to eminent men, 58.
- Spain*, circumstances which enfeebled the mighty power of, 362. Barbarities attending the expulsion of the Moors from, 336.
- Stair*, Lord, his facts and their consequences, 65. State of the public debts, 248.
- Stomach*, new discovery concerning its operation in the act of vomiting, 348.
- Succession*, order of the hereditary, to the crown of these kingdoms, 519.
- Sumatra*, history of, by W. Marsden, 507. Description of the religion of, *ibid*.
- Swinburne's travels in the two Sicilies*, 308.
- Sylla*, account of his resignation of the Dictatorship, by Dr. Ferguson, 324.
- T.
- T'Asker's annus mirabilis*, 341.
- Taste*, good, talents necessary to compose it, 452.
- Taxes*, considerations on, 68.
- Times*, a satire, 424.
- Thoughts*, on the present war, 67. On equal representation, 333.
- Tragic Muse*, a poem, 253.
- Trinity*, sentiments respecting the doctrine of, 524.
- Tucker*, Dean, his four letters to the E. of Shelburne, 374.
- Turner's* true alarm, 412.
- U.
- Vegetables*, a system of, translated from Linnæus, 30.
- Verses* on several occasions, 59.
- Unbelievers*, an address to them, by Dr. Ogilvie, 387.
- Unities* of time and place in tragedy, observations on, 455.
- Voyages dans les Alpes*, by H. B. de Saussure, 106.
- Usury*, reflections on, 513.
- W.
- Walker's* hints for improvement in the art of reading, 120.
- Wall's* dissertation on chemistry and medicine, 503.
- Watts's* select poems and essays, 512.
- Watson's* history of the reign of Phillip III. of Spain, 361, 460. His account of the circumstances which enfeebled Spain, 362. Of the progress of Dutch manufactures and commerce, 363. Of the expulsion of the Moors from Spain, 366. Of the fall of Calderona, 465.
- Whig party*, description of, 69.
- Whishaw's* sermons, 525.
- Whitfield's* sermon on the utility and importance of human learning, 416.
- Wilson's* aphorisms, 168.
- Wissemburg*, or White Hill near Prague, battle of, 467.
- Wooffendale*, R. his observations on the teeth, 517.
- Y.
- York*, bills of mortality at, observations on, 287.
- Z.
- Zen's* letters to the citizens of Edinburgh on elections of Members of Parliament, 498.

I N D E X

TO THE

HISTORY OF THE THEATRE.

- A.**
- Actors**, the estimation in which they ought to be held, 171. Requisites necessary to form one, 172. Censured for glaring, 265. For inattention, 266.
- Aikin**, Mr. his powers not equal to his understanding, 176.
- Anecdote**, a theatrical one, 353.
- B.**
- Baddely**, Mr. eminent in French characters, 356.
- Banditti**, an opera, its merits and success, 76.
- Barnister**, jun. a promising actor, 178. Errors in him to be corrected, *ibid.*
- Bensley**, Mr. his appearance unfavourable, 173. Faults pointed out, *ibid.* Characters particularly adapted to him, 174.
- Brereton**, Mr. commended in *Castalio* and *Jaffiere*, 175. Blamed for too much action, *ibid.*
- Brereton**, Mrs. her person small and powers confined, 443. Yet of service from her knowledge of her profession, *ibid.*
- Bulkley**, Mrs. her merits and defects, 441.
- C.**
- Carnival** of Venice, an opera, its merits and success, 79.
- Caution** to actors, 353.
- Choice** of Harlequin, a pantomime, its merits and success, 81.
- D.**
- Divorce**, a farce, its merits and success, 81.
- Dodd**, Mr. excels in the coxcomb, 354. Not equal to Mr. Weston's parts, 355.
- Duplicity**, a comedy, its merits and success, 76.
- Ducò** theatres, ridiculous exhibition on them, 354.
- F.**
- Fair Circassion**, a tragedy, its merits and success, 75.
- Fair American**, an opera, its merits and success, 80.
- Farren**, Mr. his qualities and defects, 176. Wants ambition, 177.
- Farren**, Miss, her abilities, 438. Description of her person, *ibid.* Her faults censured, *ibid.* Her success in new plays, 439.
- Field**, Miss, her singing commended, 442.
- G.**
- Garrick**, Mr. anecdotes of him, 350.
- H.**
- Harris**, Mr. his character as a manager, 73.
- Hopkins**, Mrs. her merit in certain characters, 443.
- I.**
- Imitations** of other performers disgusting, 355.
- K.**
- King**, Mr. esteemed the first comic actor, 349. Once the rival of Woodward, *ibid.* His excellencies in *Lord Ogleby*, 351. In witty dialogue without a rival, *ibid.*
- L.**
- Un's** ghost, a pantomime, its merits and success, 81.
- Life** of an actor, how it ought to be employed, 177.
- M.**
- Mody**, Mr. the best Irishman, 355. his merits in other characters, 566.
- N.**
- Narbonne**, Count de, a tragedy, its merits and success, 74.
- O.**
- Original** characters, the best for discovering a player's genius, 351.
- P.**
- Paimor**, Mr. his superior abilities in comedy, 174. Faults pointed out, *ibid.* blamed for want of attention to his character, 175.
- Parsons**, Mr. excellent for old characters, 352. His extravagances blamed, *ibid.* The most natural imitator of drunkenness, *ibid.* Humorous fancy, 353.
- Philips**, Miss, an actress of great expectations, 441. Her person described, 442. Faults to be corrected, *ibid.* an excellent singer, *ibid.*
- Pilon**, Mr. an imitator of Mr. O'Keefe, 80.
- Pope**, Miss her particular excellencies, 439. Her performance of Mrs. Candour, *ibid.*
- Positive** man, a farce, its merits and success, 81.
- R.**
- Rant**, in an actor censured, 176.

I N D E X.

S.

Sherridan, Mr. his conduct, as manager contrasted with Garrick, 72.

Siddons, Mrs. her merits equal to Mr. Garrick, 259. Description of her figure and countenance, *ibid.* Her general merit, 260. Peculiar excellencies in *Isabella*, *ibid.* In *Jane Shore*, 261, 262. Criticism on her playing *Jane Shore* obviated, 263. Her Grecian Daughter *ibid.* *Calista*, 264. Capital stile of playing the mad scene in *Belvidera*, 265. Her example to be imitated, 267.

Smith, Mr. his figure and voice, 172. Merits and defects, *ibid.* Comedy most suitable to him, 173.

Stage, state of the London during the last season, 72.

Suet, Mr. cautions to him, 356.

T.

Theatre, worthy the attention of the legislature, 444.

Theatrical institutions, importance of them, 171.

V.

Variety, a comedy, its merits and success, 78.

Vertumnus and *Pomona*, an operatical after-piece, its merits and success, 80.

Universal praise bestowed on Mrs. Siddons, a proof of her real merit, 259.

Voice, a good one, an indispensable requisite for a tragedian, 441.

W.

Walloons, a comedy, its merits and success, 78.

Which is the man? a comedy, its merits and success, 77.

Wrighten, Mrs. a good comic actress and singer, 440.

Y.

Yates, Mrs. celebrated speech of her in the Roman Father, 177.

I N D E X

TO THE

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

A.

Africa, new settlements in, may console Britain for the loss of America, 448.

America, causes of the revolt in, 83. Ministry ignorant of the dispositions of the people of, *ibid.* Might have been saved by a change of measures, 84. Emancipation of, its effects and future influence, 87.

Americans, conjectures on the effects of independence on their minds, 359. their grand commercial views, 445.

B.

Britain, consolatory circumstances to, under her present situation, 182.

British constitution, from its nature not capable of having equal influence in foreign courts to France, 359.

British councils, a love of peace the predominant principle in, 272.

British nation, what spirit at present predominates in, 444.

C.

Coalition, betwixt Lord North and Mr. Fox, 183. expectations from it, 269. censured, 357.

Colonization, mild government of Britain unfavourable to, 82.

Commerce, spirit for, the distinguishing feature of the present times, 179.

Congress, their inclination to shew favour to the loyalists opposed by the Provincial assemblies, 528.

Cornwallis, Lord his surrender dispirits parliament, 84.

D.

Danube, to open the navigation of, supposed to be the aim of the Emperor, 448. consequence of such an event a wide field for political speculation, 488.

Dissensions at home, bad effects of them, 83.

E.

Emigrations to America already began, 272.

Emperor of Germany, conjectures why he declined the opportunity of opening the navigation of the Scheldt, 181, 447. Steadfastness with which he pursues his plans of reformation, 447. The navigation of the Danube his grand object, 448.

East-India Company, dissolution of it to be dreaded, 271.

England, comparative state of, in 1763 and 1783, 82.

Factions,

I N D E X.

- F.**
- Factions*, reflections on, 268.
- France*, her political system changed, 179. Improbability of her entering soon into a war, 180. Sensible of the political importance of extending their language to foreign countries, 183.
- Francis*, Mr. to be sent to India, a proof of the pacific disposition of ministers, 359.
- Fox*, Mr. his coalition with Ld. North, 183. Inconsistencies in his conduct, 184. Grounds of his contest with Lord Shelburne, 268.
- G.**
- Government*, important business to be attended to by, 271.
- H.**
- Human* affairs, the intricacy of, 445.
- I.**
- Independence* of America a cause of jealousy to Spain, 180.
- Influence* of the crown, opinions of different parties respecting it, 268. To demolish it, the object of the Rockingham and Shelburne parties, *ibid.*
- Ireland* political state of, 528.
- Iron* manufactures, the only ones enlivened by the peace, 445.
- L.**
- Language*, a sameness of, one of the greatest sympathies that unite men, 183.
- M.**
- Mahrattas*, peace with them likely to restore tranquillity to India, 528.
- Ministry*, a new arrangement of, expected to afford subjects for speculation, 272.
- Ministry new*, formation of, 357. Difficulties they have to encounter, 358.
- Ministers*, their professions, and conduct when in power, contrasted, 526.
- Misfortunes*, counterbalanced by success, 84.
- N.**
- North*, Lord his coalition with Mr. Fox, 183. Reasons for his reprobating the terms of peace, *ibid.*
- Northern* powers, the emancipation of America no desirable object to them, 182.
- P.**
- Party*, an independent one in Parliament, its rise or fall the criterion of public spirit, 446.
- P.**
- Peace*, concessions of, augment the power of France, and proportionally weaken England, 85. More relished than at first, 358.
- Political* reformation, various schemes of, 446.
- Prussia*, king of, his schemes, 181. Jealousy of the Emperor, 447. Anecdote of him, 448.
- R.**
- Receipts*, oppression of the tax on them, 526.
- Reformation*, spirit of, extended to the church, 270. Political, planned by the different parties, 446. Extends to Scotland, 447. Steadiness with which it is pursued by the Emperor, *ibid.* Progress of in Scotland, 526.
- Rockingham* administration eager for peace, 84.
- Russia*, her chance of success in a war with the Turks.
- S.**
- Scotland*, political reformation begun there, 447. Progress, 526.
- Shelburne*, E. of, his craft and duplicity, 184.
- Shelburne* administration, great expectations from it, 85. Hopes of blasted by the peace, *ibid.* Secrecy in negotiation and attention to commerce, 86. Great object of their peace to break the confederacy against us, 358.
- Spain*, policy of, at the peace of Munster, compared with that of Great Britain, in 1783, 86. Political situation of in the late contest, 180. Their reduced state in 1609, and recovery from it, 271.
- State* of parties, reflections on, 270.
- State* of the country, such as requires great political wisdom, 358.
- T.**
- Treaties* between Holland and America, our ignorance of them, 272.
- Turkish Empire*, an attack on it meditating, 181. Their chance of success in a war with Russia, 528.
- U.**
- United Provinces*, their unaccountable conduct, 181.
- W.**
- Wdr.* arguments for and against supporting it, 86.
- Wales*, Prince of, his revenue, 526.

ERRATA: In a few copies in page 517 line 2 from the top, for *jun.* read *Janet*; and in Contents, page 5 line 10 from the bottom, for *Dunbar's*, read *Janet's*.

C O N T E N T S.

H ALHEAD's Grammar of the Bengal Language,	Page 5
Cecilia, or Memoirs of an Heiress,	14
Pownall's Treatise on the Study of Antiquities,	16
View of the History of Great Britain during the Administration of Lord North,	23
A System of Vegetables, translated from Linnæus,	30
Hunteri Nummorum Veterum,	33
Bishop Newton's Works,	35
Abbé Raynal's Revolution of America,	42
Paine's Letter to the Abbé Raynal,	46
Warton's Specimen of a History of Oxfordshire,	49
Governor Hastings's Narrative of the late Transactions at Benares,	56
Sonnets to Eminent Men, and an Ode to the Earl of Effingham,	58
Verfes on several Occasions,	59
Genuine Letter address'd to Mr. H—ce W—le,	ibid.
Siberian Anecdotes, a Novel,	60
Love Fragments. A Series of Letters,	ibid.
Frailities of Fashion, or the Adventures of an Irish Smock,	61
Extract from the Life of Lieut. Henry Foley,	ibid.
Remarks on the Trial of the Countess of Cork,	ibid.
Letters on a Variety of Subjects,	ibid.
O'Brien's Luforium; or, a Collection of Songs, &c.	62
The Naval Triumph: a Poem,	ibid.
Trial of Col. Cosmo Gordon for Neglect of Duty,	63
Corrector's Remarks on his Majesty's Speech,	ibid.
Recovery of America demonstrated to be practicable,	ibid.
Defence of Lord Shelburne,	64
Short Reply to a [mock] Defence of Lord Shelburne,	65
A Word at Parting, to Lord Shelburne,	ibid.
Lord Stair's Facts and their Consequences,	ibid.
Remarks upon the Report of a Peace,	66
Political Memoirs, or a View of some of the first Operations of the War,	ibid.
A Letter in Defence of Mr. Fox and others, in Answer to Cicero,	
Lucius, Cataline, or the American Deputy,	67
Thoughts on the War, with a Review of Lord North's Administration,	ibid.
Considerations on Taxes,	68
Characters of Parties in the British Government,	ibid.
Narrative of Sir Henry Clinton,	70
Letter to the First Belfast Company of Volunteers,	ibid.
Letter to Lord Beauchamp,	71
Anderson's History of France, Vols. IV. and V.	89
Sheridan's School for Scandal, a Comedy,	96
Fothergill's Works, Vol. I. and II.	105
De Saflure's Voyages dans les Alps,	106
Cunningham's Account of the Rights of Election,	115
ENG. REV. Vol. I.	Walker

C O N T E N T S.

Walker's Hints for Improvement in the Art of Reading,	120
Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica, No. VII.	123
Elliot's Elements of Natural Philosophy,	125
Picturesque Beauties of Shakespeare. Prints by Taylor,	127
Chalmers's Estimate of the Comparative Strength of Britain,	129
Human Happiness; or, the Sceptic. A Poem,	132
History of the Life of the Earl of Chatham,	141
Cumberland's Mysterious Husband, a Tragedy,	144
PHILOSOPHICAL NEWS	153
On the Absorption of fixed and other kinds of Air,	155
New Discoveries in Chemistry,	156
Chesterfield's Art of Pleasing,	157
Flowers of Literature, containing the Essence of the Beauties of Johnson, Swift, Fielding, Pope, &c.	157
Observations on Dr. Johnson's Life of Hammond,	158
The Farmer's Night-cap, or the Parson's Pocket Companion,	159
Adventures of a Rupee,	ibid.
Heroic Epistle to Lord Viscount Sackville,	ibid.
The Progress of Poetry, by Mrs. Madan,	161
Review of Mrs. Crawford and Mrs. Siddons in Belvidera,	162
An Archæological Dictionary, or Classical Antiquities of the Jews, Greeks, and Romans,	ibid.
Bibliotheca Croftiana,	163
Disney's Reasons for quitting the Church of England,	ibid.
Dr. Smith's Nine Discourses on the Beatitudes	ibid.
Andrews's Analysis of the Principal Duties of Social Life	164
Distress, a Poem: by Robert Noyes	165
A Poem sacred to the Memory of the late Sir J. Clerke,	167
The Necessitarian, or Liberty and Necessity stated,	ibid.
Observations on Nutritive Vegetables,	ibid.
Wilson's Aphorisms,	168
Thoughts on the Relaxation of Human Bodies,	ibid.
Sherwin's Remarks on the Nature, &c. of the Marine Scurvy,	169
Reply to Sir Henry Clinton's Narrative,	170
Lord Cornwallis's Answer to Sir Henry Clinton,	ibid.
Ferguson's History of the Progress and Termination of the Roman Republic,	185, 322
Smellie's Translation of Buffon's Natural History,	192
Douglas's Reports of Cases determined in the Court of King's Bench,	199
Priestley's History of the Corruptions of Christianity,	205
Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire,	212
M'Farlan's Enquiries concerning the Poor,	220
The Capricious Lady, a Comedy,	227
Aitkin's Elements of the Theory and Practice of Physick and Sur- gery,	230
Gregory Conspectus Medicinæ Theoreticæ,	233
Bonnet Oeuvres d' Histoire Naturelle & de Philosophie,	236
Lord Stair's State of the Public Debts,	248
Address to the People of England on the intended Reformation in Parliament,	249
	Free

C O N T E N T S.

Free Parliaments, or a Vindication of the Parliamentary Constitution,	249
A Dialogue on the actual State of Parliament,	250
A Constitutional Guide to the People of England unrepresented,	251
Propriety of retaining Gibraltar impartially considered,	ibid.
Serious Answer to Lord George Gordon's Letters to Lord Shelburne,	ibid.
Remarks on the Letters from an American Farmer,	252
Letter to the Earl of Shelburne on the Legislative Rights of Ireland,	ibid.
Letter to the Earl of Shelburne on the Peace,	ibid.
Report of the Proceedings of the York Committee of Association,	253
Address to the People of Great Britain on the Independence of America,	ibid.
The Tragic Muse, a Poem addressed to Mrs. Siddons,	ibid.
Holcroft's Family Picture; or, Domestic Dialogues,	255
Political Squabble; or, a Scramble for the Loaves and Fishes,	ibid.
Ode on the late Change in Administration,	256
Coombe Wood: a Novel,	ibid.
ACADEMICAL NEWS. Princess Dashkoff appointed President of the Academy of Sciences at Petersburg,	257
Mason's Translation of Du Fresnoy's Art of Painting,	273
Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, Vol. LXXII. 282,	477
Bishop Watson's Letter to the Archbishop of Canterbury,	290
Fashionable Follies; a Novel,	298
Albert, Edward and Laura, and the Hermit of Priestland,	300
Black's Historical Sketch of Medicine and Surgery,	303
Saunders on the efficacy of the Red Bark in the Cure of Agues,	307
Swimburne's Travels in the Two Sicilies,	308
Opinion upon M. Donkey's Memoir on the Cure of the Puerperal Fever	316
Atanfon on Amputation, and the After-treatment,	317
List of the Absentees of Ireland, and Estimate of their Estates,	329
Considerations on the Provisional Treaty and Preliminary Articles,	332
Candid and Impartial Considerations on the Preliminary Treaty and Provisional Articles,	ibid.
Consolatory Thoughts on American Independence	333
Thoughts on Equal Representation	ibid.
Letter to the Livery of London on an Equal Representation	334
An Enquiry concerning the Military Force proper for a Free Nation,	ibid.
A Vindication of General Richard Smith,	ibid.
Trinder's Experiments on the Medicinal Waters in Essex,	335
Schotte's Treatise on the Synochus Atrabiliosa,	336
Home's Efficacy and Innocency of Solvents,	337
Park on the Diseases of the Joints of the Knee and Elbow,	ibid.
Minors's Practical Thoughts on Amputations,	ibid.
Armstrong on the Gonorrhœa in Females,	338
Sheldrake's Remarks on Brand's Chirurgical Essays,	ibid.
Renny's Treatise on the Venereal Disease,	339
Ode on the Peace,	340

C O N T E N T S.

Taſker's Annus Mirabilis ; or the eventful Year 1782,	341
Albion Triumphant, a Poem,	343
ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS. Literary Curioſities from Paris,	343
Address of the Medical Faculty on the Birth of a Dauphin,	344
— Fish-women on the ſame occaſion,	345
PHILOSOPHICAL NEWS. Scheme for performing Diſtillation in <i>vacuo</i> ,	ibid.
New Experiments on the Pulſation of the Arteries,	346
Phoſphoric Acid extracted from Gypſum,	ibid.
Experiments on the Reſpiration of fixed and inflammable Air,	347
New Diſcovery of the Operation of the Stomach in the act of Vo- miting,	348
Watſon's Hiſtory of Phillip III. King of Spain,	362, 460
Lewis's Tranſlation of Hoffmān's Practice of Medicine,	368
Dean Tucker's Four Letters to Lord Shelburne,	374
Dancer's Hiſtory of the Expedition to Fort San Juan, ſo far as re- lates to the Diſeaſes of the Troops,	378
Reeves's Hiſtory of Engliſh Law,	380
Ogilvie's Enquiry into the Cauſes of Infidelity and Scepticiſm,	386
Enquiry into the Principles of Eccleſiaſtical Patronage,	388
Bergmanni Sciographia Regni Mineralis,	390
Farmer on the Worſhip of Human Spirits in the Heathen Nations,	393
Bell's System of Surgery, Vol. I.	400
The Sentence of the Court Martial on General Murray,	407
Obſervations on Miniſterial Anarchy,	ibid.
Young and Loſt on the Legality of encreaſing the Navy,	ibid.
Political Reflections on Colonial Governments,	408
Six Letters to the Burgeſs of Ludlow,	409
Baratarian Inqueſt,	ibid.
The Chronicle of the Kingdom of Caſſiterides,	ibid.
Andrews on Republican Principles and a Commonwealth,	410
Dawes's Nature and Extent of Supreme Power,	ibid.
Serious Matters for Members of Parliament,	ibid.
Inadequacy of Parliamentary Representation fully ſtated,	411
Thoughts on the Difficulties England will be left in by the Peace,	ibid.
Address to the landed Gentlemen of Scotland on Elections,	412
Turner's True Alarm,	ibid.
Letters to a Patriot Senator,	413
Hints addreſſed to the Public on the Finances,	ibid.
Obſervations on Lord Cornwallis's Answer to Sir H. Clinton,	414
A new Concordance to the Old and New Teſtament,	ibid.
Innes's Diſcourſes on Practical Subjects,	ibid.
Biſhop of Briſtol's Sermon before the Houſe of Lords,	415
Whitfield's Sermon on Human Learning,	416
Ford's Sermon on Compaſſion to the Poor,	ibid.
Obſervations on a better Mode of providing for the Poor,	ibid.
The American Wanderer,	417
Miſs Lee's Reſceſs, Vol. I.	ibid.
Hiſtory of the Revolt of Ali Bey,	418
Capt. Inglefield's Narrative of the Loſs of the Centaur,	ibid.
Introduction to the Study of Polite Literature,	ibid.
The Two Mentors, a Modern Story,	419

Narra-

C O N T E N T S.

Narrative of a Shipwreck on Cape Breton,	420
Sheridan's Address to the Public,	ibid.
Congress of Cythera, or the Judgment of Love,	ibid.
Essays and Letters on the most important Subjects,	421
Memoirs of the Anglesea Militia,	422
Egan's General Exchanger,	ibid.
Scotts' Elements of Geometry,	423
Ippopaida, a Poem,	ibid.
The Times, a Satire,	424
The Bawd, a Poem,	ibid.
COMMUNICATIONS. Dispute between the Scottish Antiquarian Society and Dr. Robertson,	425
Letter from Lord Buchan and the Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries at Edinburgh,	ibid.
Petition of the Society to the King for a Charter,	426
Reference to the Lord Advocate,	427
Dr. Robertson's Memorial in Opposition to it,	428
Memorial of the Philosophical Society on the same side,	429
Letter from the Curators of the Advocates Library supporting Dr. Robertson,	430
Memorial of the Society of the Scottish Antiquaries in support of their Claim,	431
Beattie's Moral and Critical Dissertations,	449
Cumberland's Letter to the Bishop of Landaff on his proposed Reform,	470
Elements of Jurisprudence,	484
Archæologia; or, Tracts of the London Antiquarian Society,	488
The Man in the Moon,	494
Letters of Zeno to the Citizens of Edinburgh,	498
Memoirs of the Bastille,	501
Wall's Dissertations on Chemistry and Medicine,	503
Translation of Bergman's Essay on Chemistry,	504
Nicholson's Introduction to Natural Philosophy,	505
Marsden's History of Sumatra,	507
The Hypercritic, by James Elphinston,	511
Select Poems and Essays, by Dr. Watts,	512
The Saddle on the Right Horse, &c.	ibid.
Reflections on Usury,	513
Letter from a Country Curate to the Bishop of Landaff,	ibid.
Ode on leaving South Carolina,	515
Jebb's Cases of the Paralysis of the lower Extremities,	516
Newman's Essay on the Principles of the Medical Profession,	ibid.
Dunbar's Treatise on the Venereal Disease,	517
Wooffendale's Observations on the Human Teeth,	ibid.
A Guide to Health, Beauty, Riches, and Honour,	ibid.
Reflections on the Preliminary and Provisional Articles,	518
Constitutions of the American States,	ibid.
Thoughts on a Reform in the Representation,	ibid.
Order of hereditary Succession of the Crown,	519
Case and Claim of the American Loyalists,	ibid.
Observations on the Preliminary and Provisional Articles,	ibid.
The Coalition, or an Essay on State Parties,	520

C O N T E N T S.

A Letter on Parliamentary Reformation,	520
Consequences likely to Result from the late Revolution in the British Empire,	ibid.
Sequel to an Essay on the Origin and Progress of Government,	521
Observations on the Nature of Oaths,	ibid.
A Probation Sermon,	522
Observations on the Decline of the Clerical Credit and Character,	523
Sentiments on the Doctrine of the Trinity,	524
Animadversions on the Profanation of the Sabbath,	ibid.
Curfory Remarks on a full detection of Popery, &c.	ibid.
Whitshaw's Sermons,	525
Vindication of the Observations on the Decline of the Clerical Credit and Character,	ibid.

T H E A T R E.

S TATE of the London Stage during the last Season,	p. 72
Mr. Sheridan's conduct, as Manager of Drury Lane, contrasted with Mr. Garrick's,	ibid.
Mr. Harris's character, as Manager of Covent Garden,	73
Merits and success of the New Pieces of last season,	74
Count de Narbonne, a tragedy, by Mr. Jephson,	ibid.
Fair Circassian, a tragedy, by Mr. Pratt,	75
Duplicity, a comedy, by Mr. Holcroft,	76
Which is the Man, a comedy, by Mrs. Cowley,	77
Variety, a comedy,	78
The Walloons, a comedy, by Mr. Cumberland,	ibid.
The Carnival of Venice, an opera, by Mr. Tickle,	79
The Banditti, an opera, by Mr. O'Keefe,	ibid.
The Fair American, an opera, by Mr. Pilon,	80
Vertumnus and Pomona, an operatical after-piece,	ibid.
The Divorce, a farce, by Mr. Jackman,	81
The Positive Man, a farce, by Mr. O'Keefe,	ibid.
Retaliation, a farce,	ibid.
Lun's Ghost, a pantomime,	ibid.
Choice of Harlequin, a pantomime,	ibid.
Importance of theatrical institutions,	171
Unjust prejudices against actors,	ibid.
Qualities necessary to form an actor,	172
Mr. Smith's merits in tragedy,	ibid.
Comedy more suitable to him,	173
Mr. Bensley's merits and defects,	ibid.
Abilities of Mr. Palmer, and his faults condemned,	174
Mr. Brereton's rise in public favour, and defects pointed out,	175
Mr. J. Aickin commended,	ibid.
Mr. Farren's theatrical qualities and defects,	176
Mrs. Yates's speech in the Roman Father,	177
Mr. Farren's abilities and want of ambition,	ibid.
The studies of an actor,	ibid.
The younger Mr. Bannister, care recommended to him,	178
Various instructions to actors,	ibid.
Popularity of Mr. Siddons. Not exceeded by Mr. Garrick,	259
Mrs.	

C O N T E N T S.

Mrs. Siddons's figure and person described	259
Flexibility of her countenance, and perfection of her voice,	ibid.
Studies her author attentively,	260
Isabella pronounced to be her chief d'œuvre,	ibid.
Her performance of Jane Shore,	261
Her powers of inspiring pity and terror,	ibid.
Mistress also of the sublime and pathetic,	ibid.
Various excellencies in Jane Shore,	262
A criticism upon her obviated,	263
Her performance of the character of Euphrasia,	ibid.
Assumes the manners of the characters she represents,	264
Capital style of playing Belvidera,	265
Actors censured for staring,	ibid.
Improprieties remarked, and instructions given,	266
Mrs. Siddons an example to be followed,	267
Mr. King the first comic actor; his natural and acquired abilities,	349
Observations on Woodward's acting; King formerly his rival,	ibid.
Cibber's criticism on Garrick,	350
New characters favourable for discovering genius in an actor,	351
Mr. King's excellence in Lord Ogleby,	ibid.
Mr. Parsons's excellencies, particularly in old characters,	352
Anecdotes and cautions. Unwarrantable freedoms to be checked,	354
Ridiculous exhibitions on the Dutch theatre,	ibid.
Mr. Dodd's excellencies in foppish characters,	ibid.
Mr. Moody's correctness in playing Irish characters,	355
Mr. Baddely eminent in French characters,	356
Desertion of Mrs. Abingdon, from Drury Lane, opens a field for	
Miss Farren's Abilities. Her figure and faults described,	438
Miss Pope's great abilities in certain characters,	439
Particularly excels in Mrs. Candour,	ibid.
Mrs. Wrighten's acting and singing praised,	440
Mrs. Bulkley's figure and talents,	441
Miss Phillips, an actress of great expectation,	ibid.
Her figure. Defects in her acting and singing. Her fine voice,	442
Mrs. Hopkins's merit in old characters.	443
Mrs. Brereton. Her person small, and powers confined,	ibid.
Importance of the stage,	444

N A T I O N A L A F F A I R S.

C OMPARATIVE state of England in 1763 and 1783,	p. 82.
Government of Britain unfavourable for Colonization,	ibid.
Causes of the Revolt in America,	83
British Cabinet ignorant of the strength and disposition of the Americans,	ibid.
Disensions at home prevented the exertion of national strength abroad,	ibid.
Surrender of Cornwallis dispirited the House of Commons,	84
Our misfortunes counterbalanced by our successes,	ibid.
A timely change of measures might have saved America,	ibid.
Rockingham Administration's eagerness for Peace destroys all,	ibid.
Great expectations from Lord Shelburne's Administration,	85
These	

C O N T E N T S.

Our hopes from Lord Shelburne's Administration blasted by the Peace,	85
His concessions augment the power of France, and proportionably weaken England,	ibid.
Arguments for and against supporting the War,	86
Shelburne's secrecy in Negotiation, and attention to Commerce,	ibid.
Policy of Spain at the Peace of Munster, and of Great Britain in 1783, compared,	ibid.
Effects of American Emancipation, and its future influence,	87
Distinguishing Feature among the nations of Europe,	179
Political system of France changed,	ibid.
Conduct of Spain censured,	180
Conduct of Holland,	181
Schemes of the Emperor and King of Prussia,	ibid.
Consolations to England,	182
Coalition betwixt Lord North and Mr. Fox,	183
Lord Shelburne's craft and duplicity,	ibid.
Reflections on Factions and the supposed Influence of the Crown,	268
Rockingham Administration formed to diminish that influence,	ibid.
Conduct of Shelburne and Fox imputed to interested motives,	269
Reflections on the state of Parties,	270
Reformation extends itself to the Church,	ibid.
Business to be done in Parliament,	271
History of Spain contrasted with the present situation of Britain,	ibid.
Love of Peace predominant in our Councils,	272
Ignorance of American Treaties with the Dutch,	ibid.
Subjects of speculation to be derived from a New Administration,	ibid.
Formation of a New Ministry,	357
Observations on the Coalition,	ibid.
State of the country; National debt; Supplies and new taxes,	358
Lord Shelburne's assertion on the Peace,	ibid.
Superior influence of French policy in foreign Courts,	359
Mr. Francis to go to India, a proof of our pacific disposition,	ibid.
What spirit predominates,	444
Iron manufactures only enlivened by the peace,	445
Probable consequences of the peace,	ibid.
Intricacy of human affairs,	ibid.
Observations on political reformation,	446
Indignation at the patriotic farce,	ibid.
Rage of reformation reaches Scotland,	447
Reforms carrying on by the Emperor and Duke of Tuscany,	ibid.
Prussia and Russia jealous of the movements of the Emperor,	ibid.
Emperor's plan of opening the navigation of the Danube,	448
Probable effects of such an event on the commerce of Europe,	ibid.
Contrast betwixt the professions, and the conduct of Ministers,	526
Oppression of the receipt tax,	ibid.
Prince of Wales's revenue,	ibid.
Progress of political reform in Scotland,	ibid.
Political state of Ireland,	527
State of the Russian and Turkish Empires,	ibid.
Mahratta peace will restore tranquillity to India,	528
Congress inclined to favour the Loyalists, but opposed by the Provincial Assemblies,	ibid.



7

